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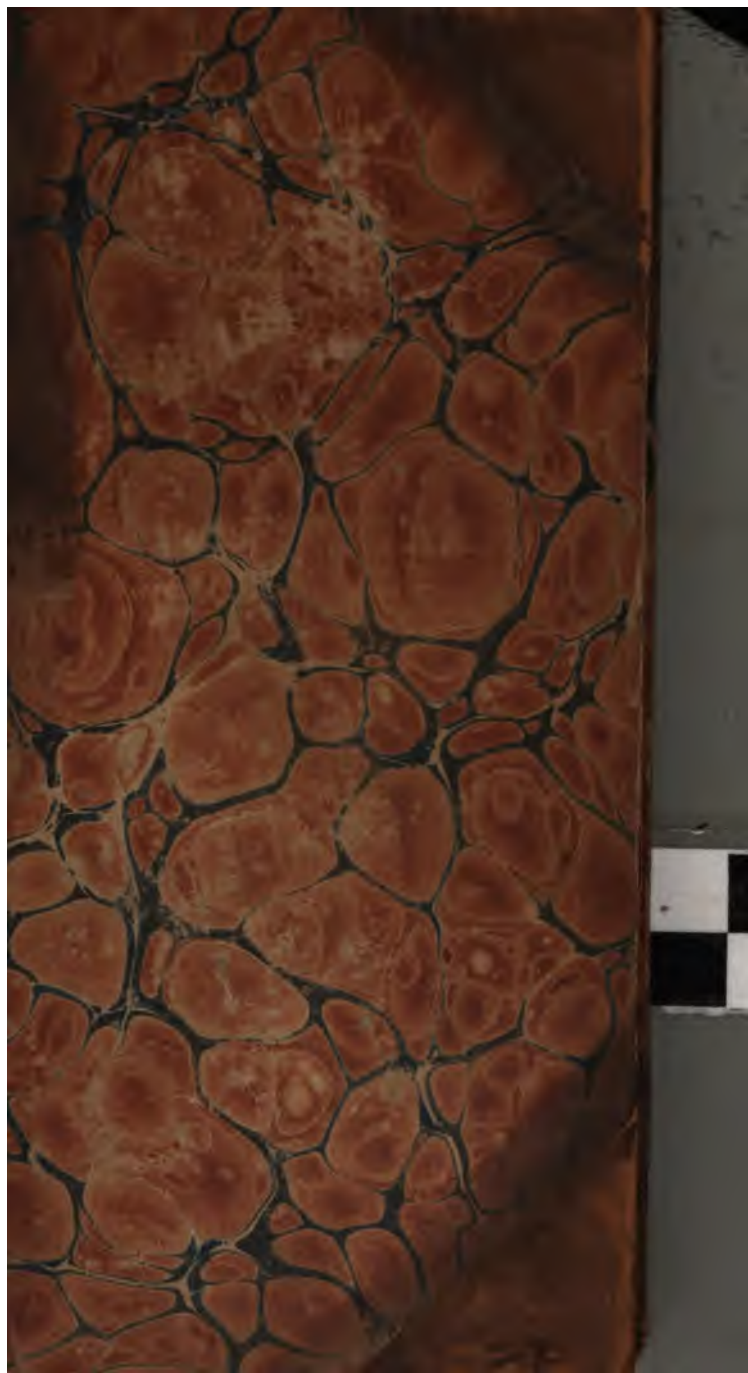
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HISTORICAL MISCELLANY.

LONDON:
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S.A. 1890
HISTORICAL MISCELLANY;

OR,

ILLUSTRATIONS

OF

THE MOST IMPORTANT PERIODS

IN

ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORY;

WITH A PARTICULAR ACCOUNT

OF THE

British Constitution and Commerce:

FORMING A SUPPLEMENT TO

PINNOCK'S GRECIAN, ROMAN, AND ENGLISH HISTORIES.

BY W. C. TAYLOR, A.M.

OF TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN.



LONDON:

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PREFACE.

THAT history is one of the most useful studies for youth is universally admitted, but too little attention seems to be paid to the fact, that it is naturally the most attractive. A thirst for novelty, a desire to obtain facts on which imagination can expatiate, is one of the first feelings discoverable in the dawnings of the human mind, and if it were always taken advantage of, we should hear less complaints of the natural idleness of boys, and fewer lamentations over the difficulties of teaching. Those who have been engaged in the business of schools, are well aware that in reading history boys usually select some hero, the traits of whose character they fill up from fancy, and amuse themselves by speculations on his conduct and actions; some go farther, and select a nation or tribe for their favourite, enquiring into its history, customs, and fortunes, with a pertinacity which they never exhibit in compulsory labour. Love of sensation and sympathy in human actions are laws of our nature, exhibited as strongly in the school-boy rejoicing in the success of Alexander, as in the statesman debating on the fortunes of nations. It is then worth our while to consider whether any practical advantage can be

derived from these facts? In several schools the Lancastrian system of mutual instruction has been applied to the study of history, and has been attended with very decided success; the boys examining each other in the presence of the master, and some little reward being assigned to the best answerer. From this, two great advantages have been gained; the examined considered the hours for history a time almost of recreation, on account of the agreeable variety it introduced into school-business; the youthful examiner, from the habit of putting questions, gradually learned how to express himself with correctness and precision. The Pinnock editions of the Greek, Roman, and English histories afford every facility for the pursuit of such a plan; the models they give of correct questions, the reference by numbers to aid the formation of the answer, and the supplemental instruction supplied in their valuable notes, &c. have been found, by experience, to make the knowledge of history more accurate and more easily acquired. Even the poetical mottoes to the chapters have added to their utility; aptitude of quotation appears to boys, especially in classical schools, one of the most pleasing and interesting accomplishments; the teacher who illustrates Virgil and Homer by parallel passages from Milton, Shakspeare, and Byron, will never have reason to complain of an inattentive class—the motto at the head of a chapter at once attracts a boy's attention, and to judge of its appropriateness is an additional motive to his carefully reading it through.

The portions of ancient history in which we are most interested are those that relate to the Greeks and Romans;

the struggle between the former and the Persians, and the wars between the latter and the Carthaginians, are incidentally or directly connected with almost every important event in ancient times. But the records of these events, used in schools, contained an account of only one party; and when the student, with a natural curiosity, enquired something about the Persians and Carthaginians, he found the means of information placed beyond his reach. In the two first parts of this Miscellany an attempt has been made to supply this deficiency; the history of those Asiatic nations, with whom the Greeks were connected either by peace or war, has been compiled from a careful comparison of the best historians, and an endeavour has been made to compress into this brief sketch some of the most interesting traits of individual character which were likely to make an impression on the youthful mind. To this is subjoined a history of Greece in the classical and heroic ages, a topic strangely omitted in the common school histories; the allusions every where made by the poets to the occurrences of that period render some account of it an almost essential requisite for the classical student, while the state of society which it exhibits possesses that charm of romance and chivalrous adventure so pleasing in our early years. Some notice has been taken of the great similarity between the state of society in Greece during the heroic, and Europe during the middle ages; for to shew how similar are the actions of men under similar circumstances is one of the most important uses of history. The literature of the Greeks is so extensive, that under ordinary circumstances only a small portion of it can be communicated in a school; on

this account it has been thought fit to give a few translated specimens of the higher authors, both to convey some idea of their beauties to those who may not be able to study them in the original, and to induce those who may have an opportunity, to pursue their classical studies, and not, as in most cases, to neglect them the moment that they have quitted the school.

There is a blank left in all the common histories between the death of Alexander and the establishment of the Roman power in the east of Europe and in Asia; and yet there was scarcely a period so replete with events pregnant with interest and instruction. The successors of Alexander established the Greek language in a great part of the East, and thus prepared a way for the rapid diffusion of Christianity in a later age; they also unconsciously facilitated the future progress of the Roman armies by their virtues as well as by their vices; for while they exhausted their strength in mutual wars, their improvements in commercial intercourse, and the new lines of communication they opened with the West, afforded easier means of invasion to their conquerors. The Greek states in the south of Italy and the Carthaginians were the earliest and the greatest rivals of Rome; some account of them was necessary, in order to explain the causes of the extended dominion subsequently obtained by the Latins. The Carthaginians have unfortunately had no native historian, and the fable of the lion and the man is forcibly recalled to our minds while perusing the narratives written by their enemies.

The modern history of Europe commences with the age

of Charlemagne. From the downfall of Rome to his accession, we read only of successive inroads of barbarians, who scarcely had become settled in a country, and begun to acquire the first principles of civilization, when they fell victims to fresh hordes, as the original inhabitants had done to them ; but from his reign, history begins to wear a more settled form, and we discover a system of government completely new, every where established. The feudal system and chivalry being then the very foundation of modern history, an account of their nature, and some of their most important details, forms a suitable introduction to the third part of the Miscellany ; but as these systems are best viewed in their effects, the history of the crusades is given at considerable length. These wars exhibit a strange mixture of chivalrous feeling and religious fanaticism ; a combination of principles that long exercised a fatal influence in Europe. To the delight felt by boys in the history of that interesting period, the writer can well testify ; frequently has he spent agreeable hours relating to young friends stories of the knightly deeds performed by the crusaders, and might say with Scott,

“ Kindled their brows to hear me speak ;
And I have smiled to feel my cheek,
Despite the difference of our years,
Return again the glow of theirs.”

The connection of Great Britain with India, and the establishment of such an empire as the English now possess in the East, appears to require that the topic should no longer be passed over in silence ; but to treat it at suf-

ficient length would require several volumes : it is hoped, however, that this part of the Miscellany will be found to contain as much information on the subject as the youthful student will require. In the chapters on British biography, it has been endeavoured to unite the conciseness of a dictionary with the interest which always attaches itself to the " story of a life ;" but it was manifestly impossible to do this, without making a selection of the most important characters ; the history is, therefore, limited to the lives of such individuals as have produced permanent effects either in the politics or literature of the country. For the essay on the British Constitution, the writer is indebted to a young lawyer of considerable eminence, whose name he regrets that he is not at liberty to reveal.

In conclusion, he begs leave to state, that if this work should be honored with the patronage of the public, it is his intention to prepare a second volume, in which, among other important subjects, he will endeavour to supply a condensed history of Roman literature ; an account of the rise and progress of the Mahommedan dynasties ; a sketch of the restoration of learning in Italy ; and some account of the Reformation ; subjects on which youth are anxious for information, and which no books at present used in schools can supply.

The reader is requested to correct the following errors, which have accidentally escaped notice :

Page 198, sect. 6, after *Templars*, insert " took place at this time."

— 206, — 2, last line of motto, for *hill* read *spear*.

INTRODUCTION.

ON THE STUDY OF HISTORY.

To her just bar impartial History brings
The gorgeous group of heroes, statesmen, kings;
Nature's clear mirror! Life's instructive guide,
Her wisdom sour'd by no preceptive pride!
Age, from her lesson, forms its wisest aim,
And youthful emulation springs to fame.

HAYLEY.

It is a very trite and common observation, that "wisdom is the result of experience;" but since experience can only be acquired by age, a substitute for it must be necessary, in order that wisdom may be communicated to the young. History aggregates the experience of past ages, and thus supplies the deficiencies of our own; it preserves, as it were, in a store, all the treasures of knowledge collected by those who have preceded us on the busy stage of life, and liberally imparts a share to every applicant. We may contemplate with eminent advantage the wonders of the heavens, the varied works of nature, the laws which regulate the bright orbs in their pathless courses, and the properties of the material world in which we live; such studies display to us the wisdom and the greatness of the Almighty Creator; but the study of human nature is of infinitely

nearer concernment to us ; it is the science of ourselves ; the source whence the practical rules for the government of our conduct must be drawn. Without it we should be as strangers in our native land, not knowing how to live in the place where we were destined to spend our existence.

The utility of history depends not on its loading the memory with facts, but on its filling the mind with principles. The mere knowledge of the fact, that Jerusalem was taken by Titus, is of little value without the moral lesson that the history of that event conveys ; it teaches us that perseverance in profligacy and error will bring certain destruction both on nations and individuals, (for what are nations but collections of individuals ?) and that depraved morals are usually followed by mental blindness. History, then, inculcates the most excellent moral lessons by the most powerful means, example. It shews us the folly of submitting to unexamined prejudices and errors by the pictures it draws of the calamities which such illusions have brought down even on the best-intentioned. It exhibits the deformity and unhappy consequences of vice—it paints the loveliness and advantages of virtue, by shewing that all who have deserved well of their fellow-men have been consecrated by the affections of all succeeding generations.

From these considerations it appears that a knowledge of *all* past events, even if it were possible, would scarcely be useful, and that a selection of the most important events is not only necessary but advantageous. Two *principles* must guide our choice ; we must select those

occurrences which possess sufficient interest to claim our attention, and sufficient importance to enlarge our judgment. Anecdotes of private conversation please without instructing; the annals of barbarous tribes convey knowledge, but fail to interest us. The histories of Greece and Rome, in ancient times, and that of our own country in the modern ages, pre-eminently combine both qualities, and are therefore judiciously adopted, by almost universal consent, for the instruction of youthful students. To increase the facilities of acquiring a knowledge of these histories is the design of the present volume, and to suggest a few practical rules for the pursuit of the study, is the purpose of this introduction.

There are in the histories of every nation some great events, which have produced permanent changes in their condition; these are called epochs; they are few in number, and they are easily retained by the memory; and all other important occurrences may be associated with them, either as having tended to bring about the change, or having followed from it as a necessary consequence. If we view history in this way we obtain links of connection between its different parts; or, to adopt a more familiar illustration, we get a favourable spot on which we may stand while we examine the surrounding prospect in detail. The defeat of the Persian invasion by the Greeks is an event of the nature we have described; the young student will find in the first chapters of the following work a series of occurrences, combining to shew that such an attempt would probably be made, and that it would *probably meet with successful resistance*. He will observe

an absolute despotism existing in the East from the earliest period, a form of government in which the princes were every thing and the people nothing, and he will see that in consequence patriotic spirit and love of independence did not exist among the Asiatic nations. This simplified the business of a conqueror, and facilitated the establishment of extensive empire; the invader met no enemy except in the battle-field; when the army of the monarch was vanquished his kingdom was likewise subdued. There existed no population tenacious of their rights, who would combat the foreigner step by step and inch by inch; there was seldom strong personal attachment to the sovereign; to the interests of the country there was none. The ease with which such a mighty empire as that of Persia was erected must have induced Darius Hystaspes to believe his power irresistible; and when he looked at Greece, whose haughty insults provoked his wrath, and whose favourable situation for commerce excited his cupidity, he naturally imagined that he could seize on that country with very little more trouble than Cambyzes had experienced in the conquest of Egypt. While every thing in the East thus directly tended to encourage the invasion, every occurrence in the West had as strong a tendency to generate a spirit of desperate resistance. We see from the account of the heroic ages of Greece, that from the earliest ages that country was divided into several petty states, whose frequent wars kept up a spirit of valour among the population; we observe, too, in them, as in all the descendants of Gomer, or Celtic tribes, a love of adventure and perilous enterprise, encouraged by the songs

and praises of the poets. Above all we find that the mass of the population had at least a nominal interest in the government, and despised as slaves those who were subject to the uncontrolled will of a single master. When these two lines of study meet in a point at the field of Platea, we feel as if we had anticipated the event, as if we could have told the Persian that the elements were less useful auxiliaries to the Scythians than patriotism and freedom were to the Grecians. We may now turn to the consequences; the magnitude of their success intoxicates the victors; they exhaust their strength in mutual wars; their petty jealousies generate envy, treachery, and a countless train of vices; we admire the splendour of their literature and their arts, but we every where discover the symptoms of decay. Thus may we connect the greater portion of the occurrences recorded in Grecian history with one remarkable event, and thus may we facilitate our acquisition of knowledge, and methodize it after it has been attained.

The attainment of universal empire by the Roman Republic is the next resting point that we should recommend to the young student of history. He will observe that the Greek states in the south of Italy fell into disorder precisely at the moment that Rome was able to take advantage of their weakness. Had their decay occurred sooner, a different power might have established its dominion in Italy; had their fall been delayed, Rome would have been unable to compete with them in the field. Looking at the resources of both states, the student will *see that at the commencement of the Punic wars Carthage*

was apparently an overmatch for its rival ; but he will also observe that this very circumstance was beneficial to the Romans, as it compelled them to make more strenuous exertions, and thus practically acquainted them with the extent of their resources. In the history of Carthage, the cause of its apparent strength is shewn to be also that of its real weakness ; the citizens seldom personally served in the war, their great wealth enabled them to employ bands of mercenaries, whom the chances of better pay or greater plunder would easily induce to seek another master. Like too many other commercial states, Carthage was a cruel tyrant to her colonies and her subjects, hence the African princes were ready to unite with any invader that might enable them to shake off so grievous a yoke, and we are taught from the very beginning that Carthage was most vulnerable in the centre of her dominions, and that her ruin would be certain if ever she were assailed in Africa. While we see every thing in the west of Europe tending to establish the triumph of Rome in the Punic contest, we find events occurring in Greece and lower Asia preparing a way for the establishment of her dominion in that direction. The successors of Alexander had familiarized the once proud Greeks to obedience ; the contests in that country were for the establishment of some single dominion, and few, very few, drew the sword for freedom. Exhausted by lengthened conflicts, they could make but ineffectual resistance when a new competitor advanced to seize the prize for which they were all contending, and *probably thought* the tranquillity produced by the pressure of external force a decided change for the better.

The third and most important object of contemplation to which we would direct the student's attention is, the establishment of the present order of things on the ruins of the Roman empire. An old French author quaintly compares the view of this subject to what we witness in the theatre. "The splendid drama of the Greeks and Romans is at an end, the curtain falls; for a long time I am confounded by the rioters in various parts of the house, at length the curtain rises again, but with scenery and story so new and so different that the first act of the play is over before I can discover its tendency or its meaning." Adopting this illustration, let us endeavour to discover from the first act the purpose and design of the entire. The feudal form of government, the romantic principles of chivalry, and the introduction of religious motives to war, have no parallel in the annals of former ages. In the crusades all these are developed in their fullest strength, and the history of these wars, independent of its great interest, is valuable for its exhibition of the elements which have led to the present established system in Europe. The feudal system was a severe but necessary discipline to prepare for the moral renovation of Europe. Unfitted for an advanced state of society, it contained within itself the elements of change, but at the same time it possessed an inert force which preserved it from the dangers of sudden revolution, and rendered the change beneficial by making it gradual. In the era of the crusades we discover commerce gradually creating a new and valuable order of society, the mercantile or middle class; Venice, Genoa, and the Hanse towns *encreasing the relations between the different European*

countries, and creating a monied interest that would be a powerful rival to the landed proprietary. The history of this period also shews us the power of the clergy continually encreasing, and their ambition stimulated to new usurpations by every successive triumph; but we may also discover the dawnings of that resistance to their power which in a later age established the principles of the Reformation, and not only created a new and better system, but materially benefitted the old. Combining the history of the crusades with that of commerce, the student will be able to trace out the elements which have generated the present form of European society.

The constitution and laws of England, not existing in a single code, and being framed by the successive labours of several generations, the student will find the lives of those who have exercised any influence, either on the morals or politics of the country, useful aids to his forming some conception of the circumstances that have principally contributed to mould the present system of British government. He will observe that the ambitious churchmen, who so often resisted the sovereign, in some degree prepared a way for the establishment of popular rights, by habituating men to an authority independent of the king. The student will also observe the appearance of a popular dislike of the papal power in England long before the age of the Reformation, probably arising from a recollection of the share that the popes had in producing the Norman conquest, and will thus be enabled to account for the *facility with which* Henry VIII. and Elizabeth established the *reformed religion*. Finally, the account of the constitution

given at the close of this volume, will shew the historical student what has been the result of the labours of those whose lives he has perused, and what is the nature of that government under which he has to live.

The most important lesson we can deduce from these views, is to avoid confidence in our own precipitate opinions, and to respect the sentiments of others, even when they do not coincide with our own. The most common error of youth is the ardour with which it embraces some hasty notion without enquiry or examination ; the vehemence with which it asserts crude opinions, and its absolute intolerance of difference of sentiment. But history is replete with lessons of humility ; it shews that no strength of genius, no depth of learning, have been sufficient to preserve even the greatest men from error, and it teaches us, in addition, that truth and rectitude advance modestly and slowly, while violence has been always used to propagate falsehood and imposture.



HISTORICAL MISCELLANY.

PART I.

CHAPTER I.

ANCIENT EGYPT.

Hardly the place of such antiquity
Or note of these great monarchies we find;
Only a fading verbal memory
And empty name, in writ is left behind.

FLETCHER.

1. THE natural fertility of the soil of Egypt, the beauty of its climate, and the periodical inundations of the Nile, which in a great degree supersede the necessity of agricultural labour, early enticed men to settle in that favoured country, and afforded leisure and opportunity for that social intercourse which is the foundation of civilization. We learn from the sacred writings, that in the fifth century after the deluge Abraham and Joseph, on visiting Egypt, found there an established form of government, a king surrounded with all the "pride, pomp, and circumstance" of royalty, and a priesthood already laying the foundation of future authority, by pretending to the arts of divination and magic. 2. Of the early history of this country we know but little, the Bible contains only incidental notices of Egypt, and all other records are so dis-

figured by fable, that it is difficult to discover a particle of truth in the immense mass of falsehood and absurdity. Osiris is said to have been the first person who successfully laboured to civilize the nation, in which task he was assisted by his sister and wife Isis, and by Hermes (called also Mercury, Thoth, and Trismegistus,) who invented the arts of eloquence, poetry, and music. On his return from a successful expedition, he is reported to have been slain by his brother Typhon; and the Egyptians, grateful for the benefits he had bestowed on them, raised him and his assistants, after their death, to the rank of divinities.

3. The kingdom of Egypt was founded by Menes, of whom nothing but his name is recorded, and from him to the reign of Psammeticus, in the seventh century before the Christian era, the authentic Egyptian annals are almost a blank; the principal events recorded are, the invasion of the shepherd-kings, the erection of the palace of Osymandias, the digging of the lake Moeris, and the victories of Sesostris. 4. The shepherd-kings appear to have been a tribe of wandering Arabs who at a very early period subdued Egypt, and treated the nation with signal cruelty and oppression. After some time the invaders were expelled; but so keen a sense did the Egyptians retain of the sufferings they had endured, that they would not eat at the same table with the brothers of Joseph, who had come from a country bordering on that which had given birth to their oppressors.

5. The palace of Osymandias is remarkable for having contained the first public library. The books were collected in the most splendid apartment of the building, and over the entrance was inscribed, *The medicine of the soul*.

6. The lake Moeris was an artificial excavation of great extent; it was designed to obviate the inconveniences which might result from too great an inundation of the river Nile, and to be a reservoir that might supply the deficiencies when the river did not rise to a proper height: for

it was necessary the river should rise at least fifteen cubits to prevent a scarcity.

7. The victories of Sesostris are described as the greatest ever obtained by any conqueror: he is said to have subdued Ethiopia, and all the nations of the East, beyond the limits of the conquests obtained by Hercules and Bacchus; he overcame the superstitious horror that the Egyptians had of the sea, and established powerful fleets, which spread the terror of his name and his authority over the eastern coasts of the Mediterranean; he attacked Scythia, Colchis, and Thrace, and on his return from his glorious career, quelled a conspiracy that had been formed against him in his absence, by his brother Danaus. The magnificent public works that he erected in the latter years of his reign, the beneficial laws and institutions that he established, are proofs that he added the political wisdom of a statesman to the military skill of a general. The histories of this sovereign are so various and contradictory, that it is scarcely possible even to conjecture the era in which he lived; but there is still sufficient accordance in their testimony to refute the scepticism of those who affect to consider it as very doubtful whether such a person ever existed.

8. After the death of Sesostris, Egypt appears to have retrograded in civilization and consequence, the natural result of dominions too extensive for the resources of the ruling state to retain in subjection, and establishments too expensive for a nation destitute of commerce to sustain. About six hundred and seventy years before the birth of Christ, Psammeticus* ascended the throne of Egypt, and with

* Of this prince the following curious anecdote is related: Desirous to know what nation in the world was of greatest antiquity, he ordered two children to be brought up in a secluded spot, where they could not hear a single word spoken. At two years old they are both said to have cried out *beccos*, which in the Phrygian language signifies bread; and from that time the Egyptians yielded the claim of higher antiquity to the Phrygians. To complete the absurdity of this precious fable, Goro-

his reign the authentic history of this country may be said to commence. Contrary to the habits of former sovereigns, he encouraged foreigners to come and trade in the country, opened his ports to vessels of every nation, and especially encouraged commercial intercourse with the Greeks, who, even at that period, began to take the lead in naval enterprise and commercial knowledge.

9. Nechos, the son and successor of Psammeticus, undertook to dig a canal from the Red Sea to the river Nile; but the difficulties of the works were found to be so great, that the undertaking was abandoned. He is also said to have sent out an expedition which circumnavigated Africa, and anticipated the discoveries of Vasca de Gama.

10. To him succeeded Apries, who was soon dethroned by Amasis*. The usurper appears to have been a wise and patriotic prince; and, during his reign, commerce and literature flourished, and many celebrated foreigners visited his court, in order to study the "learning of the Egyptians," among whom were Solon the Athenian law-giver, and Pythagoras the Samian sage.

11. During the reign of Psammeticus, the son of Amasis, Egypt was subdued by Cambyses, king of Persia. This conquest, which took place about five hundred and twenty-five years before the Christian era, was attended with

pius Becanus, a learned writer of the middle ages, endeavoured to prove from the story that High Dutch was the parent language, because *becker*, in that language, signifies a baker.

* Amasis finding that the people despised the obscurity of his birth, took the following means of dispelling their absurd prejudices. He caused a statue of one of the popular deities to be formed out of the golden cisterns in which he and his guests used to wash their feet; and when he found that it had become an object of general adoration, he assembled the Egyptians, and told them, that if they worshipped that which had been formerly destined to mean uses, because it bore the impress of a divinity, on the same grounds they should reverence a *man invested* with the honours of royalty, even though he were *descended from an humble origin*.

circumstances of great barbarity; the invaders desolated the country with fire and sword, slew the sacred bull, which the Egyptians worshipped as the god Apis, destroyed all the temples, and subjected the priests to the most ignominious tortures. Egypt continued tributary to the Persians until the overthrow of that empire by Alexander the Great. It was formed into a new monarchy by one of Alexander's generals; and its subsequent history will be found in the fifth and subsequent chapters of the second part.

12. The government of Egypt was monarchical, but the authority of the king was limited by established laws, and by the superior influence of the priesthood. The provisions supplied for the royal table, and the manner in which the monarch should employ his time, were strictly defined; he was obliged to attend a public sacrifice every morning, where the chief priest delivered a lecture on the virtues that a sovereign should principally cultivate, and the errors which it was most necessary for him to avoid.

13. But the custom of a trial after death appears to have been the most powerful check on the conduct of their monarchs. Before the corpse of any person was interred, it was brought into a judgment-hall, and proclamation made for the accusers, if any, to stand forward; when no accusation was made, the body was honourably conveyed to the tomb; but if an accuser appeared, the matter was publicly investigated; and if the result was unfavourable to the deceased, the body was deprived of the rites of sepulture. This appeared an awful punishment to a people who believed that the connexion between soul and body continued after death, and that the soul mouldered away as the body decayed.

14. The influence of the priesthood appears to have been enormous; they possessed one-third of the lands of the kingdom, were exempted from all taxes and imposts, had a principal share in the government of the kingdom and

the administration of justice, and were the uncontrouled keepers of the public archives and records.

15. The administration of justice was committed to thirty judges, who were sworn to pronounce just judgment, if even the king commanded the contrary; pleadings were always in writing, to prevent the seductive arts of eloquence from influencing their decisions; and when the president of the court rose to give judgment, he touched the person in whose favour they had decided with a figure of truth, intimating that truth had dictated their sentence.

16. The following are among the most remarkable laws of Egypt. The homicide, even of a slave, was punished with death; accessories to murder were subjected to the same punishment as principals; concealment of murder was punished with stripes; cowardice in a soldier subjected him to perpetual infamy; and persons guilty of coining base money were sentenced to lose their right hand.

17. Marriage is said to have been introduced by Menes; the Egyptians permitted the intermarriage of brother and sister; polygamy was not prohibited, but adultery was, under severe penalties; the man who was found guilty was punished with a thousand lashes, and the woman had her nose cut off. Infanticide was visited with a punishment worse than death; the body of the child was bound to that of the guilty parent, and in this manner he was compelled to stand, in an exposed part of the city, for three days, unless, as was most probable, physical and mental pain would give an earlier termination to his sufferings.

18. The laws regulating trade and commerce do not appear to have been dictated by the same wisdom as the preceding: every person was compelled to exercise the same profession or trade that his father had followed; idleness was prohibited under severe penalties, and a regular office for effecting a compromise with thieves was established in every city.

19. The religion of Egypt was the grossest and most de-

basing idolatry that existed in the whole pagan world. In common with most other eastern nations, they worshipped the sun, moon, and starry host; to these luminaries they gave the names of their favourite monarchs, until the historical and astronomical names are mingled in inextricable confusion; but besides these, they worshipped animals, particularly a black bull, with peculiar spots, whom they denominated Apis, and whom they fed with most absurd luxuries while alive, and interred with marks of extravagant honour when dead. The other animal objects of worship were, the cat, the dog, the wolf, the ibis, the falcon, the ichneumon, and the crocodile.

20. These animals were not indifferently worshipped; the deity of one tribe was frequently the object of detestation in another, and hence arose intestine commotions, which made Egypt an easy prey to the first invader, and prevented the Egyptian people from ever combining to shake off the yoke. A number of other superstitious observances dependant on animal worship were practised by the Egyptians, many of which greatly resemble the Mosaic institutions, such as the distinction of clean and unclean beasts, and the total abstinence from blood.

21. But it is as the parent of the arts and sciences that Egypt principally claims our attention. Osiris is said to have been the inventor of the plough, and his sister Isis claims the honour of having first introduced a system of agriculture; their Thoth, or Hermes, introduced the arts of music and eloquence, and to Egypt architecture owes its birth. The date of the erection of the pyramids is lost in the ages of remote antiquity; and even in the age of Homer we read that

“Giant Thebes flung back her hundred gates;”

that a city of great size and resources, able to send forth twenty thousand full-armed soldiers, existed in Egypt, while Athens was as yet but a collection of hovels erected

round the Acropolis, and Sparta a miserable village on the Eurotas. Finally, the mummies prove to us that the chemical and medicinal arts had been sedulously cultivated, and brought to a high degree of perfection.

22. The overflowings of the Nile effacing the landmarks, by which the boundaries of property were ascertained, compelled the Egyptians to exercise their ingenuity in discovering a means for ascertaining the limits of the Nile on the cessation of the inundations; hence arose the science of geometry, in which Egypt through all antiquity particularly excelled. The means by which the height of the rising of the Nile were determined, and the numerous canals which intersected the country, shew that mechanical and physical sciences must have early arrived at a high degree of perfection. To the Egyptians astronomy is more indebted than to any other people. They were the first inventors of the division of time by months, the first persons who remarked the difference between the solar and lunar years; to them we owe the division of the zodiac into twelve signs, and the first efforts for the formation of a regular calendar.

Questions.

1. How does it appear that a regular form of government was established in Egypt at an early period?
2. By whom is Egypt said to have been civilized?
3. What are the principal events in Egyptian history that occurred before the era where its authentic history commences?
4. Who were the shepherd kings?
5. What was most remarkable in the palace of Osymandias?
6. Why was the lake Mæris excavated?
7. What account is given of Sesostriis?
8. With whose reign does authentic history commence?
9. What useful projects were undertaken by Nechos, and what was their success?
10. How did Amasis benefit Egypt?

11. By whom was Egypt subdued
12. How was monarchy checked and limited in Egypt?
13. Why was the trial after death a powerful restraint?
14. What causes gave the Egyptian priesthood superior influence?
15. In what manner was justice administered?
16. What were the most remarkable penal laws in Egypt?
17. By what laws was the marriage state regulated?
18. What were the Egyptian commercial regulations?
19. How did the Egyptian idolatry differ from that of other nations?
20. What superstitions were derived from the worship of animals?
21. To the invention of what arts has Egypt a claim?
22. What sciences were successfully cultivated by the Egyptians?



CHAPTER II.

PHŒNICIA.

Them Science taught by mystic lore to trace
The planets wheeling in eternal race.

FALCONER.

1. THE astronomical and geographical knowledge of the Egyptians was in a great degree merely speculative; the people of whom we are now about to speak had little or no knowledge that was not pre-eminently practical. Placed on a coast indented with excellent harbours, and living in the immediate vicinity of forests, abounding with the best timber for ship-building, the Phœnicians seem to have been invited by nature herself to become a commercial nation: besides, the barren soil of their own country compelled them to seek in foreign countries that sustenance which their native land could not supply. Of the history of this enterprising people we know but little: devoted entirely to commerce, they appear to have neglected literature; and although letters are said to have been a Phœnician invention, but little advantage seems to have *resulted to the original discoverers.*

2. From the earliest ages they appear to have been devoted to navigation, and to have conducted their trading enterprises with equal skill and courage. Phœnician mariners conducted Solomon's fleets to Ophir and Tarshish; at the command of Nechos a Phœnician expedition circumnavigated Africa, and three years after their departure from the Red Sea arrived through the straits of Gibraltar and Mediterranean Sea, at the mouth of the Nile. Colonies were planted in the principal islands of the Mediterranean, in the south of Spain, and the west of Africa; and there is every reason to believe that the British islands were, at a very remote period, visited by this adventurous people.

3. Sidon was at first the capital of Phœnicia, but was soon eclipsed by the increasing wealth and grandeur of Tyre, which for a long time was the great emporium of the commerce of the ancient world: in addition to its extensive trade it was further enriched by manufactories of Phœnician stuffs, especially the celebrated Tyrian purple. This was cloth dyed in a liquor obtained from a shell-fish, whose beauty and rarity made it the favourite garb of princes. The discovery is said to have been made by accident—a shepherd's dog having eaten a shell-fish, the people observed that the blood had stained his mouth with a beautiful colour, and were thus induced to try its effects on their cloths.

4. The religion of the Phœnicians was an idolatry less absurd, but more immoral than that of the Egyptians. The worship of Adonis (called also Osiris, or *Thamirus*) was attended with circumstances of the most disgusting and profligate pollution; human sacrifices made also a part of their religious ceremonies, and infanticide seems to have been permitted.

5. The Phœnician historian Sanchoniathan is the most ancient writer next to Moses; a Greek translation of some fragments of his works is all that remains, and is princi-

pally composed of some loose traditions respecting the creation of the world, which are neither valuable nor interesting.

Questions.

1. What circumstances induced the Phœnicians to cultivate commerce?
2. What proofs of an enterprising spirit were exhibited by the Phœnician mariners?
3. What celebrated manufacture existed in Tyre?
4. What degrading superstitions existed in Phœnicia?
5. Who was Sanchoniathan?

CHAPTER III.

ASSYRIA AND BABYLON.

So Nimrod stood, when he the nations drew
To Shinar's plain, the Godhead to defy;
When at his voice rebellious Babel grew
Upward from earth to heaven,—with such an eye
He watch'd it scale the clouds, and brave the attempted sky.

WIFFEN.

1. DARK as are the records of Egypt and Phœnicia, the history of the people of whom we are now about to speak is involved in greater obscurity; under these circumstances the history that follows must be considered as probability rather than certainty, and as a brief sketch of what may be inferred from a comparison of different historians, rather than an account of decisive authority. It is highly probable that Babylon occupies the site of Babel, whose erection caused the confusion of language of nations, and that Nimrod, who for empire, made it the capital of

2. To Nimrod succee

thors confounded with his father ; he is said to have been the first monarch who endeavoured to extend his dominions by conquest, and the first introducer of the worship of departed heroes. He erected a temple, where his father was worshipped as the sun, under the name of Belus. 3. Disliking the situation of Babylon, he removed the seat of government from the banks of the Euphrates to those of the Tigris, and founded Nineveh, a city which long rivalled the glory of its predecessor. 4. Having frequently derived advantage from the wise counsel of Semiramis, the wife of one of his officers, he compelled her husband to resign her to him, and made her his queen.

5. Semiramis is said to have accelerated the death of her husband, and to have atoned for her guilt by erecting a magnificent monument to his memory ; others acquit her of the crime, and declare that her husband at his death reposed so much confidence in Semiramis as to leave her the guardianship of his son, and the regency of the kingdom. 6. However the sceptre was acquired, it was wielded by a powerful hand ; Semiramis extended the dominions of Assyria, and gave such security to the empire, that it lasted unbroken during several succeeding generations of weak and unworthy princes. 7. She attempted the conquest of India, but was defeated by the elephants, which trampled down the horses and camels of the Assyrians, and thus added another to the list of unsuccessful invaders of that interesting country.

8. But the most important transaction of her reign was the rebuilding and extension of Babylon, to which she brought back the seat of government. The description given of the magnitude and beauty of this city is probably exaggerated, and the works of several succeeding monarchs have been ascribed solely to Semiramis ; but after making every deduction, enough still remains to excite our wonder and admiration. 9. The city was built in the form of a square, each side of which was about sixteen miles in

length ; it was fortified by walls built of brick, cemented with bitumen, a deep ditch, and a hundred massive gates of iron ; the walls are said to have been so wide that three chariots could drive abreast on them. 10. The river Euphrates ran through the midst of the city, and to prevent the inundations which the melting of the snow in the Armenian mountains would otherwise have caused, strong embankments were erected at both sides of the river, and continued to a considerable distance above and below the town. 11. The principal public buildings in Babylon were the temple of Belus, the bridge, and the royal palaces. The temple of Belus is supposed to have been the same as the tower of Babel, and to have been converted into a temple by Ninus ; it was of great height, and on its summit there was an observatory for the Chaldean astronomers. 12. A large lake was dug above the town, into which the waters of the Euphrates were turned, while the bridge was being built ; and at the same time a tunnel was made under the bed of the river, to afford a communication between the two palaces. 13. Near the new palace, on the west bank of the Euphrates, were the celebrated hanging gardens ; these were immense terraces, raised on brick arches, of such strength as to support beds of earth so deep that the largest trees of the forest were planted in them. The gardens were laid out with great taste, and from their amazing height commanded an extensive view of the surrounding country. 14. The population of Babylon was by no means proportionate to its size, for the houses were not built in continuation, but rather like suburban villas—each house stood in the midst of a field, or ornamental pleasure-ground.

15. After a prosperous reign, Semiramis resigned the throne to her son Ninyas, who commenced his career by the murder of his mother and benefactress : secluding himself from public life he gave up the affairs of government to his ministers, and spent his time in luxury and

debauchery. 16. His successors, for thirty generations, followed his inglorious example, until at length, in the reign of Sardanapalus, the nobles, wearied of such effeminate sovereigns, broke out into open rebellion. 17. Sardanapalus, on the news of this revolt, made some vigorous efforts to defend his crown, but having received a decisive overthrow he returned to Nineveh, and collecting his most valuable treasures, he heaped them on a pile, erected in front of his palace, and having set fire to the whole threw himself into the flames.

18. From the ruins of the ancient Assyrian empire three new monarchies were formed, that of the Medes under Arbaces, who had been the principal promoter of the rebellion against Sardanapalus ; that of the Babylonian Assyrians under Belesis, and that of the Ninevite Assyrians under Ninus the younger.

19. The history of the states of Nineveh and Babylon, sometimes united under one sovereign, and sometimes independent, is obscure and uninteresting. The last Babylonian monarch was Belshazzar, who, as the prophet Daniel had foretold, was defeated and slain by Cyrus, and thus the empire of Assyria was overthrown about five hundred and sixty years before the Christian era.

20. The Assyrians worshipped the sun in the temple of Belus, and like most other nations of the East, adored as deities the moon and stars. Astronomy was cultivated by them as part of a religious education, and from this mixture of superstition and science arose judicial astrology, which Kepler felicitously describes as the foolish child of a wise mother. So devoted were they to this absurd pursuit, that among the Greeks and Romans the name Chaldean was synonymous with that of astrologer.

Questions.

1. *When is it probable that Babylon was founded ?*
2. *By whom was Nimrod succeeded ?*

3. Whither did he transfer the seat of government ?
4. To whom was he married ?
5. How did Semiramis endeavour to atone for the murder of her husband ?
6. Was Semiramis a wise sovereign ?
7. Did she fail in any attempted conquest ?
8. For what is she most celebrated ?
9. Were the walls of Babylon remarkable ?
10. How were the overflowings of the Euphrates prevented ?
11. What were the principal public buildings in Babylon ?
12. How were the bridge and tunnel constructed ?
13. What were the hanging gardens ?
14. Was Babylon thickly inhabited ?
15. By whom was Semiramis succeeded ?
16. What was the general character of her successors ?
17. How did Sardanapalus die ?
18. How many states were founded on the ruins of the Assyrian monarchy ?
19. Who was the last king of Babylon ?
20. What was the religion of the Assyrians ?



CHAPTER IV.

MEDIA AND PERSIA.

With War lean famine and diseases dwell,
 And Discord fierce escap'd the bounds of hell;
 Where'er her course on earth the fury bends,
 A crowd of mischiefs still her step attends;
 Fear flies before her swifter than the wind,
 And Desolation marks her path behind.

EPIGONIAD.

1. AFTER the defeat and death of Sardanapalus Media retained its independence, but for want of an established government fell into anarchy. This was remedied by the election of Deioces as sovereign, whose character for justice and integrity made him worthy of royalty: 2. The most remarkable of his successors was Cyaxares: B.C. soon after his accession he undertook the siege of 635.

Nineveh, but was recalled to defend his own dominions, by an invasion of the Scythians. 3. These Barbarians spread themselves over Media, and Cyaxares, unable to cope with them in the field, proposed terms of accommodation. The treacherous Mede, after the conclusion of the treaty, persuaded his subjects to invite the Scythians to their several houses, and that at a particular moment each should assassinate his guests. 4. His advice was taken : the Scythians were every where cruelly butchered, and a miserable remnant of their mighty host flying into Lydia, claimed and obtained the protection of king Halyattes.

5. The vengeance of Cyaxares still pursued the Scythians ; he declared war against the Lydian monarch for refusing to give them up. When the two armies were about to engage, an eclipse of the sun so terrified them that both retired from the field ; this eclipse is the first which is recorded to have been predicted by an astronomer ; Thales the Milesian is said to have calculated it with considerable accuracy. 6. Peace was restored between the Medes and the Lydians, and Cyaxares renewed

B.C. his attack on Nineveh. He captured it after a
626. short siege, and thus fulfilled the vengeance which the Jewish prophets had declared would overtake that proud and impious city.

7. Astyages was the next most remarkable sovereign : he had two children, Cyaxares and Mandane ; the latter he united in marriage to Cambyzes, a prince of Persia, or Iran, the most ancient kingdom of the East. The offspring of this union was Cyrus the Great, whose victories were eclipsed by his virtues. 8. After being educated in all the exercises and accomplishments in which the Per-

B.C. sians instructed their children, Cyrus was sent at
557. an early age at the head of a body of auxiliaries to aid his grandfather in the subjugation of Armenia. 9. This war was brought to a successful issue principally by

the prudence of Cyrus; and his grandfather was so struck with his valour and wisdom, that he entrusted him with the army destined to attack Assyria.

10. Cyrus invaded the Babylonian territories, defeated the Babylonians, and opened himself a way into the heart of the country. 11. Cræsus*, king of Lydia, who was in alliance with the Assyrian monarch, misled by an ambiguous oracle, resolved to oppose the progress of the conqueror. The two armies came to an engagement near Thymbra; Cyrus, with inferior forces, completely routed the Lydians, and following up his victory captured Sardis, the capital of Lydia, and took Cræsus prisoner.

12. After this success Cyrus, leaving his lieutenants to subdue the provinces and Greek states in Asia Minor, advanced towards Babylon, the strength of whose walls seemed to defy the efforts of all besiegers. One of the former sovereigns of Babylon had diverted the waters of the Euphrates into a temporary canal, while a tunnel was being constructed under the river, to connect the two palaces, which were at different sides of the Euphrates. Cyrus had this canal repaired by his troops; and taking advantage of a solemn festival celebrated by the Babylonians, he turned the Euphrates into the canal, and B.C. marched his soldiers through the bed of the river 538. into the heart of the city.

13. Belshazzar, king of Babylon, and his nobility, were spending this fatal night in mirth and revelry. He impiously ordered the sacred vessels which his father had taken from the temple of Jerusalem, to be produced. When their enjoyment was at the highest, a hand suddenly appeared and wrote on the wall the mystic words MENE MENE TEKEL UPHARSIN†. 14. Alarmed at

* As the life of Cræsus connects the Persian history with that of the Greeks, it is made the subject of the eleventh Chapter in this volume.

† *Daniel, chap. v.*

this strange event, Belshazzar sought an interpretation of the words, and Daniel, a Jewish captive, declared that it predicted the overthrow of Belshazzar's kingdom by the Persians. The accomplishment followed hard on the prophecy. That very night the Persians entered Babylon, and Belshazzar was slain fighting valiantly at the head of a few faithful friends, who gathered round him in the last extremity.

15. Cyaxares, who is in Scripture called Darius the Mede, obtained possession of the throne of Babylon. He probably took the name Darius, which in Persian signifies an avenger, after the defeat of the Assyrians. He gave his daughter in marriage to Cyrus, and thus united the kingdoms of Media and Persia.

B.C. 536. 16. Cyrus, soon after his accession, issued an edict, permitting the Jews to return to Jerusalem, and thus accomplished the prophecy of Isaiah, who had called him by name one hundred years before his birth. The remainder of the reign of Cyrus* appears to have been prosperous, and his son Cambyses succeeded to dominions more extensive than any sovereign had hitherto inherited.

B.C. 529. 17. The first undertaking of Cambyses, after his accession, was the subjugation of Egypt, then

* The history of Cyrus is differently related by Herodotus and Xenophon; they partially agree in the circumstances of his life, but their accounts of his birth and death are utterly inconsistent. I have followed the narrative given by Xenophon, both because he had more opportunities of obtaining accurate information, and because his history is more in accordance with the accounts given of Cyrus in the Bible. According to Herodotus, Cyrus dethroned his grandfather Astyages in revenge for his having been exposed by him in infancy, and united Media to Persia by conquest. Instead of the peaceable death described by Xenophon, Herodotus relates that Cyrus, having invaded Scythia, was defeated and slain by Tomyris, queen of that country; and that *she having cut off his head, threw it into a vessel of blood, saying, "Sate thyself now with that which thou hast ever desired."*

governed by Amasis. In the beginning of the war Amasis died, and was succeeded by Psammenitus; the new sovereign of Egypt was so unfortunate as to offend Phanes, the commander of a body of Greek mercenaries, in the Egyptian service, who deserted to Cambyses, and gave him great assistance by his local information. Pelusium was the key of Egypt, on the Syrian side, and its possession was the first aim of every invader. The strength of its fortifications, and the numbers of the garrison, promised to make its capture a work of time and labour, but all these difficulties were overcome by a stratagem which Phanes suggested. 18. A collection was made of the animals deemed sacred by the Egyptians; these were driven to the walls in front of the Persian army, and the Egyptians, afraid to use their weapons, lest they should kill one of their deities, permitted the Persians to capture the town almost without the loss of a man.

19. Psammenitus, enraged at the loss of Pelusium, ordered the children of Phanes to be slain in the front of his army; the Persian army, who had witnessed this cruelty from a distance, were eager to revenge the cause of Phanes; a fierce engagement ensued, and the Egyptians were completely defeated. In consequence of this victory the whole country submitted to the conqueror, and Psammenitus *, with all his family, became prisoners.

20. Elated by this victory, Cambyses resolved to subdue

* Psammenitus was taken prisoner by Cambyses; he bore his calamities with great equanimity, and even looked on at the execution of his children with dry eyes, but soon after seeing an old friend pass by in rags, whom he had known in prosperity, he burst into a flood of tears. Cambyses, affected by this strange instance of the power of friendship, treated the fallen monarch with great humanity. Psammenitus, however, entered into a conspiracy against Cambyses, and having been detected was put to death, by being compelled to drink bull's blood.

the Carthaginians, the Ethiopians, and the Ammonians. His designs on the first of these nations were frustrated by the patriotism of the Phœnicians, who refused to sail against a city founded by their countrymen, and as they were the only subjects of Cambyses who understood the art of navigation, the Persian monarch was obliged to relinquish his design. The two other expeditions are the most unfortunate recorded in history.

21. The army against the Ethiopians was headed by Cambyses himself. After they had advanced into the deserts which separate Egypt from Ethiopia, they were attacked by drought and famine, and reduced to such horrid extremities that they were compelled to have recourse to cannibalism: lots were cast, and every tenth man was slain to supply food to his comrades. A retreat became absolutely necessary, and Cambyses led back the shattered remains of his noble army to Egypt.

22. The fate of the Ammonian expedition was still more unfortunate. The temple of Jupiter Ammon was situated in an oasis, or fertile spot in the midst of the desert, like an island in an ocean of sand. 23. As there was no road or track through these sands, and no tree or hill which could serve as a mark to direct their course, the army was placed at the mercy of the Egyptian guides, whose minds were soured by recent defeat, and who felt an almost fraternal affection for the Ammonians. 24. In the midst of the desert the guides deserted the Persians, and the whole army were buried beneath the pillars of sand which the winds raise in the great desert. This catastrophe is described in the following powerful lines extracted from Darwin's Botanic Garden :

Now o'er their heads the whizzing whirlwinds breathe,
And the live desert pants and heaves beneath,
Tinged by the crimson sun vast columns rise
Of eddying sand and war amid the skies :

In red arcades the billowy plain surround,
And whirling turrets stalk along the ground.

* * * * *

Onward resistless rolls the infuriate surge;
Clouds follow clouds, and mountains mountains urge;
Wave over wave the driving desert swims,
Bursts o'er their head, inhumes their struggling limbs.
Man mounts on man, on camels camels rush,
Hosts march o'er hosts, and nations nations crush—
Wheeling in air the winged islands fall,
And one great earthy ocean covers all.
Then ceas'd the storm—Night bow'd his Ethiop brow
To earth, and listen'd to the groans below;
Grim horror shook—awhile the living hill
Heav'd with convulsive throes, and all was still.

25. The conduct of Cambyses after this misfortune resembled that of a madman. On his return from the Ethiopian expedition he found the Egyptians celebrating the festival of Apis with their usual demonstrations of joy. Enraged that any exultation should be exhibited at the time of his calamity, he slew the sacred ox which the Egyptians worshipped under the name of Apis*, and devastated the temples at Thebes. Soon after, having dreamed that he was dethroned by his brother Smerdis, he had him put to death, and when he found that Meroe, who was both his wife and sister, lamented the fate of her brother, the monster gave her a kick, which, as she was in an advanced state of pregnancy, proved fatal.

* Apis was an ox worshipped by the Egyptians, because they believed that in him the divinity of Osiris resided. The animal selected had a white square spot on his forehead, the figure of an eagle upon the back, a knot under the tongue like a beetle; the hairs of his tail were double, and his right side was marked with a whitish spot, resembling the crescent of the moon. On the death of the animal universal mourning pervaded Egypt until another ox was discovered with the same marks, and then the most outrageous symptoms of joy were manifested.

B.C. 522. 26. After having committed these crimes, he prepared to return to Persia. On his road through Persia he was astonished to receive a message announcing that Smerdis had usurped the Persian throne ; he sent for Prexaspes, whom he had employed to murder his brother, and having questioned him obtained sufficient proof that the usurper was an impostor. He resolved on hastening to punish this insolence ; but just as he was about to mount his horse he was wounded by his own sword in the thigh, and died in consequence.

27. The usurper of the Persian throne was the brother of Patizethes, one of the Magi, a sect in Persia founded by Zoroaster : he greatly resembled Smerdis in person, and was powerfully supported by the interest of his brother.

28. But the retirement in which he lived gave rise to suspicions, and these suspicions became certainty when it was found out, by means of a concubine, that the monarch wanted ears, and it was known that Patizethes the younger had been deprived of his ears by Cambyzes. A conspiracy to dethrone the usurper was entered into by seven Persian noblemen, and a circumstance more strange than any other in this strange narrative, precipitated them into action.

29. To confirm the authority of his brother, Patizethes applied to Prexaspes, and promised him a large reward if he would assert that he had permitted Smerdis to escape when sent to put him to death, and declare that Smerdis was now the real possessor of the throne. For this purpose, Prexaspes was produced on a lofty tower, and a multitude assembled to hear his declaration ; great was the disappointment of the usurper and his friends when Prexaspes declared the whole truth to the assembly, and having finished his speech threw himself headlong from the tower.

30. In the midst of the confusion that the death of Prexaspes caused, the conspirators attacked the palace. The Magi made but a weak resistance, and were soon put to death ; their sect led to a cruel persecution

throughout Persia, and it was enacted that for the future, if any of the Magi appeared in public on the anniversary of the usurpation, any person might kill them with impunity.

31. The government of Persia was perfectly despotic; the monarch assumed the title of *The Great King*, or *The King of Kings*; the people admitted into his presence were compelled to reverence him as a deity, and the least inattention to this ceremonial was capitally punished. 32. The laws of the country, although their immutability has passed into a proverb, were never allowed to interfere with the inclinations of the sovereign, however capricious and improper. When Cambyses was about to contract an incestuous marriage with his sister, he enquired of the Persian lawyers, "*Whether such a marriage were lawful?*" They replied, that, "*There was a law in Persia forbidding such an union, but there was also a law permitting the king to do as he pleased!*" Similar was the speech addressed by his mother to Artaxerxes Mnemon, who had fallen in love with his own daughter. "*It is you whom God has given as the only law to the Persians, as the sole rule of what is honourable and dishonourable, vicious or virtuous.*" 33. The servility of the people would be incredible, did not China present examples of a similar nature at the present day. Fathers applauded the murders of their children, and wretches, writhing beneath the lash, returned thanks to their sovereign for holding them in remembrance*.

* Prexaspes, at one time, reproached Cambyses for indulging too profusely in wine. The monarch replied, that he would give him a proof that intoxication did not deprive him of his faculties. Having sent for the son of Prexaspes, he ordered him to stand as a mark at one end of the apartment, while he took aim at him with an arrow from the other. The cruel monarch shot the youth through the heart, and, turning to Prexaspes, asked, "Was not that a good shot?" To which the wretched father, with detestable flattery, replied, "Apollo himself could not have taken better aim."

34. The natural consequence of such tyranny was, the equal demoralization both of princes and people. Soldiers whose only motive is blind obedience, and who are destitute of self-respect, are immeasurably inferior to those who are animated with patriotic feelings, and who are conscious that, in a battle, they contend for their own properties, their own rights, and their own privileges. Hence the countless myriads of Persia were defeated by a few hundreds of Greeks, who readily sacrificed life in defence of those rights which alone make life valuable.

35. Of all the pagan religions, the Persian appears to have been the least contaminated with superstition; it still continues to be held by the *Parsees*, or *Ghebirs*, who are descended from the ancient Persian stock. They believed in the unity of the Deity, worshipping *Mithras*, or the sun, and fire, as the most lively symbols of the divinity. They rejected images, as unworthy of the Invisible Being, and detested the Sabian or Chaldean idolatry.

36. It is scarce possible to ascertain the era in which Zerdusht, or Zoroaster, instituted the religion of the magi. He introduced the belief of two independent principles, *Oromazes*, the author of all good, and *Arimanes*, the origin of all evil. The contest between these, he asserted, would last to the end of the world; then there will be a resurrection, and the righteous and the wicked shall meet the fate they have deserved.

37. The Magi appear to have acquired the same power in Persia which the priests had in Egypt, by the superiority of their knowledge, and the real or pretended purity of their lives. They controlled even the princes, and always superintended their education. The Greek philosophers greatly respected the schools of the magi, and from them Pythagoras is supposed to have borrowed many of his doctrines.

Questions.

1. Who was the first king of Media ?
2. Which of his successors was the most remarkable ?
3. In what war was he engaged ?
4. How did he subdue the Scythians ?
5. What circumstance prevented an engagement between the Medes and Lydians ?
6. On what conditions was peace made ?
7. Who was the next remarkable Median king ?
8. In what expedition was Cyrus first engaged ?
9. What was his second war ?
10. Did he gain any victory ?
11. How did the war between Cræsus and Cyrus terminate ?
12. By what means was Babylon captured ?
13. How was this divinely intimated ?
14. By whom was the hand-writing on the wall interpreted ?
15. To whom was Cyrus married ?
16. How did he treat the Jews ?
17. What town of Egypt did Cambyses first besiege ?
18. How was it taken ?
19. Was Psammenitus punished for his cruelty ?
20. Why did Cambyses resign his intention of attacking Carthage ?
21. What was the fate of his expedition against the Ethiopians ?
22. Where was the temple of Jupiter Ammon situated ?
23. Why were the Egyptian guides treacherous ?
24. What became of the Persian army ?
25. Of what cruelties was Cambyses guilty ?
26. How did he die ?
27. Who was the usurper of the Persian throne ?
28. Why was a conspiracy formed against him ?
29. How did Prexaspes prove the crime of the magian ?
30. What became of the usurper ?
31. What form of government was established in Persia ?
32. Whence does it appear that the king was superior to the laws ?
33. How does the servility of the people appear ?
34. What was the consequence of this degradation ?
35. Describe the Persian religion.
36. What were the doctrines of Zoroaster ?
37. Whence arose the power of the magi ?

CHAPTER V.

PERSIA CONTINUED.

Many an age, and many a race,
 Long shall curse thy hated power;
 Endless woes shall Persia trace,
 Endless ills from this harsh hour.

CARLYLE.

1. THE usurper being slain, the conspirators assembled to deliberate on the disposal of the Persian kingdom. After various proposals were discussed, they resolved to continue the monarchy, and to elect as sovereign the person whose horse should first neigh at their place of rendezvous the following morning. By an ingenious artifice of his groom, Darius Hystaspes became the successful candidate, and was immediately acknowledged king by his confederates.

2. To secure himself on the throne by conciliating the people, who were attached to the line of their ancient princes, he united himself in marriage with the two surviving daughters of Cyrus, whose memory was still revered.

B.C. 516. 3. The people of Babylon had taken advantage of the troubles occasioned by the death of Cambyzes, to assert their independence, and treated every message sent by Darius with insulting defiance. The Persian monarch resolved to chastise the revoltors, and advanced with a numerous army to lay siege to Babylon. 4. On his approach, the inhabitants having collected all the provisions possible from the country, slew many of the women and children, as unnecessary mouths, and confiding in the extent of their resources and the strength of their walls, *refused all offers of pacification.*

5. For twenty months Darius maintained a useless

siege, and was on the point of resigning his efforts in despair, when one of his chief officers, Zopyrus, presented himself before him, mangled and mutilated; to the anxious inquiries of the king, Zopyrus replied, that he had inflicted these injuries on himself, in order that the Babylonians might the more readily receive him as a deserter. He then proceeded to the town, complaining bitterly of the cruelties he had suffered from Darius: his wounds gave credit to his words; his well known military skill made him appear a valuable acquisition, and the Babylonians appointed him one of their chief generals. For some time Zopyrus, by the connivance of Darius, continued to obtain partial victories over the Persians—when he had thus obtained the confidence of the citizens, he betrayed the town to Darius. The king expressed his gratitude for this ingenious treachery by declaring, that he would rather have Zopyrus whole than take twenty Babylons.

6. Darius soon after engaged in an unfortunate war with the Scythians: passing over the Bosphorus, he received the submission of the Thracians, and amongst the rest of Miltiades, the son of Cimon, afterwards his most dreaded opponent. Darius passed over the Danube on a bridge of boats, and advanced into the heart of Scythia almost unopposed. 7. But famine soon began to waste his army; the Scythians, hanging on his flanks, harassed his troops by incessant skirmishes, and carefully avoided any regular engagement. Miltiades* thought that this

* Miltiades, the son of Cypselus was appointed king of the Thracian Dolonei in consequence of the following singular circumstances. The Dolonei being severely pressed by the Absinthians in war, sent to consult the oracle of Delphi: they were directed to choose as sovereign the first person who should treat them with kindness on their journey homewards. On their arrival in Athens, Miltiades taking compassion on them as strangers, invited them to his house; they acquainted him with the oracle, and a second confirmation having soon after arrived from Delphi, he set out for Thrace. After a prosperous

would be a favourable opportunity for restoring the independence of Thrace, and of the Greek cities in Asia Minor, he therefore proposed that the bridge should be broken down, and the army of Darius left to perish. This was prevented by Histiaëus, the governor of Miletus, and Darius * led back his shattered bands in safety.

B.C. 8. Histiaëus was brought by Darius to the Persian court, and Austagoras left as his deputy at Miletus; both soon became dissatisfied with the Persian government, and excited the Greek colonies in Asia to revolt. The history of Persia becomes now for a time identified with that of Greece, and may be found in the 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th chapters of Pinnock's Grecian history.

B.C. 9. Xerxes did not long survive his calamities in Greece, having been murdered by his uncle Artabanus. His eldest son and successor shared the same fate; but their assassinations were avenged by Artaxerxes Macrocheir †, who put the murderers of his father and brother to a cruel death ‡. The reign of Artaxerxes,

reign he left the throne to his maternal half-brother, Stesagoras. He too died without issue, and his nephew, the great Miltiades, obtained the crown. The advance of the army of Darius compelled him to return to his native city, where he was received with all possible respect, and appointed general of the Athenian forces, whom he led to victory on the memorable field of Marathon. Many authors, and among the rest Cornelius Nepos, have confounded Miltiades the First with the hero of Marathon; but Herodotus who was almost cotemporary with the latter, speaks of them as distinct persons.

* The Scythians sent a messenger to Darius, who, without speaking a word, laid at the monarch's feet a bird, a mouse, a frog, and a bundle of arrows. While all were astonished at the strange present, Gobryas interpreted the meaning of the symbols; he declared that they meant, "unless the Persians could fly like the bird, swim like the frog, or burrow like the mouse, they should certainly fall victims to the Scythian arrows."

† Macrocheir signifies having a long hand: he was so named because he had one arm longer than the other.

‡ The punishment of Mithridates, who was engaged in this murder,

who is called in Scripture Ahasuerus, was long and prosperous. He subdued a revolt of the Egyptians, sent Ezra and Nehemiah to rebuild Jerusalem, and made peace with Athens.

10. Xerxes II. the next sovereign, was murdered by his brother Sogdianus, a cruel tyrant. The Persians, unable to bear his cruelties, revolted, and placed on the throne Ochus, the illegitimate son of Artaxerxes. This monarch, at his accession, took the name of Darius Nothus*, and prepared to subdue the revolted provinces of Persia. 11. The valour of his younger son Cyrus greatly contributed to his success, and Darius, after the subjugation of Egypt, gave his son as a reward almost independent authority over the provinces in Asia Minor. 407.

12. Artaxerxes Mnemon† ascended the throne on the death of his father, but was immediately exposed to the attacks of his brother Cyrus. Having detected a plot against his life, Artaxerxes would have punished his unnatural brother, but for the interference of their mother, Parysatis, whose favourite Cyrus had always been. Cyrus was ungrateful to his generous brother—he resolved B.C. to make another effort to obtain the throne, and 401. obtained the assistance of a large body of Greeks, under Clearchus. The history of this war, commonly called “the expedition of the ten thousand,” will be found in Pinnock’s Greece, chap. x. sect. 2, &c.

is a terrible instance of the refinements of cruelty practised in the east. His punishment was called that of the Trough. The victim was placed in a wooden trough, shaped like a coffin; a similar one was placed over him, and an aperture left for the head. In this situation he was strongly secured, and food given him at stated intervals, his head was rubbed with honey to attract flies to annoy him, while the confinement of his person generated worms and putrefaction, thus producing death by lingering tortures. Mithridates lived fifteen days in these agonies.

* He was named Nothus, because he was a natural son.

† He obtained this designation from the strength of his memory.

13. The court of Artaxerxes was disgraced by scenes of the most complicated murders and adulteries. Among these the cruelties practised by his mother, Parysatis, are the most conspicuous. Cyrus had been her favourite son, and she persecuted with great cruelty every one who had assisted in his downfall; at length, having procured the murder of Queen Statira, Artaxerxes shook off her influence, and banished her from his court.

B.C. 394. 14. The Greeks in Asia were afraid that Artaxerxes would revenge on them the disgrace his armies had suffered from the ten thousand; they applied to the Spartans for aid, and Agesilaus was sent to their aid, with a powerful army. 15. The victorious career of Agesilaus threatened the total subversion of the Persian power; but Artaxerxes, by a liberal distribution of money in Greece, excited such a powerful combination against Sparta, that they were obliged to recal Agesilaus to the defence of his own country.

16. The remainder of the reign of Artaxerxes was singularly unfortunate; Egypt broke out into open rebellion, Cyprus established its independence, and several other provinces shewed symptoms of revolt. His domestic calamities were still more afflicting; he was obliged to punish with death his eldest son Darius, who had conspired against him. His son Ochus, to make room for his succession to the throne, procured the assassination of his brothers, and Artaxerxes, overcome by such a complication of miseries, died of a broken heart.

B.C. 360. 17. Artaxerxes-Ochus succeeded his father, and to secure himself on the throne, put to death eighty of the royal family. 18. Artabazus attempted to take advantage of the unpopularity which these crimes brought on the monarch, and aided by the Athenians and Thebans attempted to procure the Persian throne; but Ochus was *as conspicuous for his abilities as for his crimes*, and soon *compelled Artabazus to take refuge in Greece*. Ochus

subdued the Phœnician rebels, and totally destroyed their capital city Sidon. He then marched through Syria into Egypt, and re-united that kingdom with the Persian empire. 19. His cruelties were, however, not compensated by his victories, and he was at length poisoned by his favourite eunuch Bagoas, who placed Arses, the youngest son of Ochus, on the throne.

20. Arses, after a short reign of three years, was B.C. murdered by Bagoas; the treacherous eunuch 337. then gave the crown of Persia to Darius-Codomannus, who was descended from Darius-Nothus. Bagoas supposed that by raising to the throne one of so remote a branch of the royal family as Darius, he should be able to retain the whole authority of the kingdom in his own hands. 21. The expectations of Bagoas were disappointed; Darius soon asserted his independence, and Bagoas prepared to remove him by poison. The treachery was discovered, and Darius compelled Bagoas to drink the fatal draught himself. But the termination of the Persian empire was now at hand. In the early part of this monarch's reign Alexander the Great invaded Asia, B.C. and established the empire of Macedon on the 334. ruins of Persia.—See Pinnock's Greece, chap. xiv.

Questions.

1. How was the new sovereign of Persia elected?
2. By what means did he endeavour to conciliate his subjects?
3. What city rebelled against him?
4. How did they endeavour to secure themselves?
5. By what means was Babylon taken?
6. In what war did Darius next engage?
7. To what dangers was he exposed?
8. Why did Histæus rebel?
9. What became of Xerxes after his return from Greece?
10. What was the character of the second Xerxes?
11. By whose valour was Darius Nothus assisted?
12. What led to the expedition of the ten thousand?

13. By what crimes was the court of Artaxerxes disgraced ?
14. Why did Agesilaus invade Asia ?
15. Why was he recalled ?
16. What misfortunes embittered the close of Artaxerxes' life ?
17. By whom was he succeeded ?
18. What triumphs did Artaxerxes Ochus obtain ?
19. What became of him ?
20. Why did Bagoas place Darius Codomannus on the throne ?
21. Were his expectations answered ?

CHAPTER VI.

THE FABULOUS AND HEROIC AGES OF GREECE.

THE ARGONAUTIC EXPEDITION.

There old Argo's pirate crew,
Cluster'd on the velvet plain,
There they fought, and thence they flew,
Red with slaughter to the main.

CARLYLE.

1. THE records of the earlier periods of Grecian history are more copious than authentic ; the confessedly fabulous narratives of the poets are almost equalled in invention by the inconsistent and marvellous accounts of the historians, who, like the map engravers of more modern times, thought that they had a right to fill up blanks at their pleasure, and supply the deficiencies of knowledge by the exercise of fancy. Under these circumstances it might appear, at the first view, that an inquiry into the history of this period would be equally deficient in interest and utility ; but the constant allusions made to some remarkable events in this early period by all the classic writers, the difficulty of appreciating the beauties of the Grecian poets, *without some knowledge of the events which they constantly speak of*, as matters of notoriety, and the light that

is thrown on the state of society at a period which the poems of Homer have invested with an eternal interest, sufficiently prove that such an inquiry will well repay the labour that it may require. 2. The traditions of the Greeks agree with the records of sacred history in representing the countries, afterwards known by the names of Thrace, Macedon, and Greece, as peopled at an earlier period than any other portion of the western world. 3. Two great tribes, the Pelasgi and the Hellenes, are recorded as the most numerous and powerful of the wandering hordes who possessed the country. The Hellenes derived their name from Hellen, the son of Deucalion, whom they deemed the founder of their race. They were subsequently divided into the Ionians, Æolians, and Dorians, respectively named from Ion, Æolus, and Dorus, descendants of Hellen. 4. Of these the Ionians inhabited Attica; the Dorians took possession of a mountainous district called Doris, and the Æolians peopled the western and midland divisions of the Peloponnesus. 5. All the Hellenic tribes were remarkable for their attachment to the establishments which had been preferred by the wisdom or caprice of their respective ancestors, a circumstance which distinguishes them from the Pelasgic tribes, who, after long persevering in a wandering unsettled life, either united themselves to Italy and Thrace, or melted away into the Doric and Ionic tribes.

6. From the middle of the sixteenth to the middle of the fourteenth century before Christ, an inundation of Egyptians, Phœnicians, and Phrygians overflowed the Hellenic coasts. 7. The principal colonies were conducted by Cecrops * and Danaus †, Egyptians, who re-

* Cecrops was a native of Sais: on his arrival in Attica he married the daughter of Actæus, king of that country, and founded the city of Athens. By him the cultivation of the olive, which was afterwards such a source of Athenian wealth, was introduced.

† Danaus landed in Argos, accompanied by his fifty daughters; he

spectively settled in Athens and Argos, Cadmus *, a Phœnician¹ who founded Thebes in Bœotia, and Pelops, a Phrygian, whose descendants intermarrying with those of Danaus, King of Argos, and Tyndareus, King of Sparta, acquired the entire dominion of the Peloponnesus. 8. The natives of Egypt and the East were acquainted with many improvements unknown to the Hellenic tribes. They introduced the knowledge of the Phœnician alphabet, improved the practice of agriculture, multiplied the rites of religion, and discovered to the Greeks several uses of metals; but on the other hand they gradually adopted in their turn the Grecian language, and generally conformed to the Grecian customs and institutions.

9. The progress of civilization was, however, impeded by several circumstances; the surface of Greece is more

took advantage of the unpopularity of Gelanor, the Argive monarch, to seize on the throne, and soon established a powerful kingdom in the Peloponnesus: fifty nephews of Danaus, the sons of his brother Ægyptus, came to Greece, hoping to participate in their uncle's good fortune. Terrified at their number, Danaus resolved to remove them all by treachery; he married them to his daughters, enjoining each bride to slay her husband on the wedding-night. Hypermnestra alone disobeyed the cruel edict, and spared the life of her husband Lynceus. Hypermnestra was brought to a public trial for disobedience, but was acquitted. Danaus afterwards became reconciled to Lynceus, and nominated him successor to the crown. The daughters of Danaus are fabled by the poets to have been punished in hell, by being compelled to pour water incessantly into a perforated tub.

* Cadmus was the son of Agenor, King of Phœnicia; he was sent by his father in quest of Europa, whom Jupiter had carried off: on his arrival in Bœotia, his attendants were devoured by a monstrous dragon that infested the country. Cadmus slew the dragon, and by the direction of an oracle sowed its teeth in the ground. Armed men sprung up from the plain where the teeth had been sown: Cadmus threw a stone into the midst of them, and they immediately began a ferocious and destructive contest. Four of these extraordinary combatants alone survived the engagement, and by their aid Cadmus was enabled to found the kingdom of Thebes.

indented by creeks and rivers, and more roughened by mountains and promontories, than any other part of Europe; in consequence of these natural divisions, several small distinct communities were formed, whose mutual jealousies caused innumerable wars. The coasts of Greece were temptingly exposed to the Phœnicians, Carians, and islanders of the Ægean, who made the art of navigation subservient to piracy rather than commerce; and the Thracians, the Amazons, and other barbarous hordes from the north made frequent incursions into the exposed Hellenic provinces. 10. The celebrated Amphictyonic league was formed to resist these incursions, and it so far succeeded that the progress of the Thracians was completely checked. 11. Like Europe in the middle ages, Greece at this period was infested by bands of robbers, who deemed plunder an honourable profession, and some of whom exercised the most atrocious cruelties on the hapless passengers. 12. As there was no paramount authority to control these banditti, their excesses became intolerable, and a species of knight-errantry was established, which in its most prominent features resembled that which, at a period long subsequent, was from similar causes prevalent in Western Europe. The adventurers who acquired most fame by their successes in extirpating the freebooters were Perseus *,

* Perseus was the son of Jupiter and Danae; his grandfather Acrisius having been informed by an oracle that he should be murdered by his grandson, shut up Danae in a brazen tower, to prevent any probability of her having children. His precautions were ineffectual, Jupiter obtained admission in the shape of a shower of gold, and Perseus was the fruit of their intercourse. Acrisius ordered Danae and her child to be exposed at sea in an open boat, they were wafted to Seriphus and hospitably entertained there by Polydectes, king of that country. When Perseus grew up, Polydectes, jealous of his fame, sent him to destroy Medusa, the only one of the Gorgons that was mortal. As the aspect of Medusa turned every person who looked at her into stone, Perseus would have been destroyed, had he not been provided with a mirrored shield, which enabled him to accomplish the desperate task. From the

Hercules, Bellerophon *, Theseus †, and the *Dioskouroi*, Castor ‡, and Pollux.

13. The most celebrated events in this period of uncer-

blood of Medusa sprung the serpents which have since devastated the Libyan deserts, and the winged horse Pegasus. He liberated Andromeda from a sea monster on his return, and married her. When he arrived at Seriphus, he found his mother suffering from the persecutions of Polydectes; he turned Polydectes into stone with the Gorgon's head and placed Diety's on the throne. Shortly after he proceeded to his native country, and there accidentally killed Acrisius. This unfortunate murder greatly depressed the spirits of Perseus, and was his principal motive for transferring the seat of government from Argos to Mycenæ.

* Bellerophon lived about 50 years before the Trojan war: being obliged to quit his native country, he came to the court of Prætus king of Argos. Stenobæa, the Argive queen, fell in love with the handsome stranger, but could not prevail on him to violate the duties of hospitality. Enraged at the neglect of her charms, she accused him to Prætus of an attempt on her honour. The credulous monarch lent a ready ear to the tale, and sent Bellerophon to his father-in-law with a letter ordering the bearer to be put to death. The king of Lycia, on the receipt of these letters, sent Bellerophon to destroy the Chimæra, a monster with the head of a lion, the body of a goat, and the tail of a dragon. Having overcome this and several other dangers, the Lycian king became convinced of Bellerophon's innocence, gave him his daughter in marriage, and appointed him his successor to the crown.

† See the lives of Hercules and Theseus. They are of so much importance that they are given at full length in the next chapter.

‡ Castor and Pollux were the twin sons of Jupiter and Leda. The poets relate a very extraordinary story of the manner of their birth. They say that Jupiter changed himself into a swan to enjoy Leda's society, and that in consequence of the connexion she was delivered of two eggs, from one of which came Pollux and Helen, the offspring of Jupiter, and from the other, Castor and Clytemnestra, the children of Zydarus. When they grew up they joined Jason in the Argonautic expedition. After their return, they conferred so many benefits on the Greeks, that they were universally denominated *αγαθεις*, benefactors, they were also called *Διοσκηποι*, or sons of Jupiter. Castor refused immortality unless allowed to share it with his brother, and Jupiter rewarded this fraternal affection by making the two brothers constellations in heaven, under the name of Gemini, which never appear together, but *rise and set alternately*.

tain history are the Argonautic expedition, the two Theban wars, the siege of Troy, the return of the Heraclidæ, and the migration of the Ionian and Æolian colonies to Asia Minor.

14. What was the real design of the Argonautic B. C. expedition it is not easy to discover, this much 1263. alone is certain, that the Argonauts fought, conquered, and plundered; they settled a colony on the shores of the Euxine sea, and brought home to Greece the daughter of the king of Colchis. A slight sketch of the account given by the poets will suffice in the absence of authentic history.

15. Æson, a Thessalian prince, being dethroned by his half-brother Pelias, fled into a remote part of the country, and devoted himself to the education of his son Jason, in which task he was assisted by Chiron the centaur. When Jason grew up he returned to his native city Iolchos, and demanded the resignation of the usurper. 16. Pelias, unwilling to yield and afraid to refuse, promised that he would give up the crown if Jason would avenge the murder of his relative Phryxus, who had been barbarously murdered by the king of Colchis. Jason, young and ambitious, eagerly embraced the proposal, and published the news of his intended expedition in every part of Greece.

17. The standard of enterprise and glory was speedily surrounded by the flower of the Grecian youth, Hercules, Theseus, the fathers of the heroes who fought before Troy, the poet Orpheus, the physician Æsculapius, and the Dioskouroi, were speedily numbered among the adventurers. Even the softer sex felt the influence of the zeal that Jason's proposal inspired, and Atalanta disguised herself in male attire to accompany the expedition. 18. The ship Argo was built at Pagasæ, a sea-port in Thessaly, she was the largest vessel that had hitherto appeared in these seas, mounting fifty oars. A beam in her prow, that had been cut in the woods of Dodona, had the power of giving

oracles, and according to its direction the Argonauts proceeded.

19. They first sailed to Lemnos, where the women, having lately murdered their husbands, received the visitors so kindly that they remained there two years: thence they sailed to Samothrace, where they offered sacrifices to the gods, and then sailed on to Troas. 20. In Troas Jason killed Cyzicus in an unfortunate scuffle that had originated in mistake, and endeavoured to atone for his guilt by a magnificent funeral. As they proceeded on their voyage, several curious circumstances occurred on their occasional landings, especially the deliverance of Hesione* from a sea-monster by Hercules, the slaughter of Amycus in a boxing match with Pollux, the deliverance of Phineus† from the persecution of the harpies, and the death of their pilot Tiphys, at the court of Lycus in the Propontis‡.

* The poets relate that Laomedon, the father of Hesione, had employed Neptune and Apollo to build the walls of Troy, but had subsequently refused them payment. Irritated at this, Neptune sent a sea-monster to ravage the Trojan territories, who could only be appeased by the annual sacrifice of a marriageable virgin. Hesione was the destined victim when the Argonauts arrived. Hercules offered to deliver her, provided he should receive as a reward six beautiful horses. The hero performed the task, but Laomedon refused payment. Hercules, incensed at this violation of compact, attacked and captured Troy, slew Laomedon and all his sons except Podarces, whom he held to ransom. (From the circumstance of being compelled to purchase his liberty, Podarces subsequently was called Priam, from *πριαμαι*, to purchase.) Hesione was taken away and given in marriage to Telamon, the father of Ajax.

† Phineus, at the instigation of his wife Idæa, had punished his children by a former wife unjustly with blindness; for this crime he was deprived of sight by the gods, and the harpies were sent to keep him in continual alarm, and spoil the meats served up at the royal table. Calais and Zethes, the winged sons of Boreas, who were among the Argonauts, liberated him from this plague, and chased the monsters as far as the Strophades.—See *Pinnock's Classical Geography*.

‡ After leaving the Propontis they had to encounter the danger of the Cyanean rocks. The poets represent these islands as dashing against

21. On their arrival at Colchis, the attainment of the golden fleece seemed to be attended with difficulties almost insuperable. Jason was required to tame two bulls, having brazen feet and horns, and vomiting forth fire ; he was required also to yoke them to an adamantine plough, and turn up the soil of two acres of ground that had never before been cultivated. After this he was to slay a dragon, from whose body an armed band of warriors, ready for the fight, would spring up and attempt his life ; finally he was to kill an ever-watchful dragon, that guarded the tree on which the golden fleece was hung. 22. Medea, daughter of the king of Colchis, had fallen in love with the handsome Greek, and, possessing an unparalleled knowledge of magic, she enabled Jason to perform all these hard conditions, after he had promised her his hand in marriage.

23. Medea fled with Jason when he set out on his return, and murdered her brother Absyrtus, who had been sent in pursuit of her. How the Argonauts returned is not known ; the poets feign that they sailed up the *Palus Mæotis*, (*sea of Azov*,) arrived in the Saturnian ocean, (*North Sea*,) and, coasting round the north and west of Europe, entered the Mediterranean Sea through the pillars of Hercules, (*Straits of Gibraltar*,) a course obviously impossible.

24. The return of the Argonauts to Thessaly was welcomed with universal festivity, and Medea restored Æson to youth, that he might the better enjoy the entertainments by which his son's return was celebrated. The daughters of Pelias, wishing to obtain the same favour for their father, applied to Medea, who cruelly persuaded them to murder him as a preparatory step to the proposed renova-

each other, and destroying any vessels that passed between them, whence they call them *Symplegades* (from *συμπλησσω*, to dash together) or *Planetæ* (from *πλανω*, to wander.) This fiction is designed to express more forcibly the dangers of the navigation between these islands.

tion, and then exultingly told them, that the injuries offered by Pelias to Jason and his family, were amply revenged.

25. This inhuman act of treachery quite disgusted the Thessalians, who immediately banished both Medea and Jason. They fled to Corinth, and for ten years lived there in harmony and tranquillity. At length, Jason falling in love with Glauce, daughter of the king of Corinth, divorced Medea; she, in revenge, murdered the children that she had by Jason before their father's eyes, and then fled in her magic chariot to the court of Ægeus, king of Athens.

26. Medea for some time cohabited with Ægeus, but having endeavoured to procure the murder of his son Theseus, she finally returned to Colchis, and became reconciled to her family. 27. Jason, whose intellects had received a shock from witnessing the murder of his children, wandered about unsettled and melancholy, until at length, as he was reposing by the side of the ship *Argo*, which was preserved at Corinth, a beam of the vessel falling on his head, ended his woes and his life together.

28. Notwithstanding the many romantic fictions that disfigure the story of the Argonauts, their undertaking appears to have been attended with a considerable and a happy effect on the manners and character of the Greeks. From the era of this celebrated expedition, we may discover not only a more daring and more enlarged spirit of enterprize, but a more decisive and rapid progress towards civilization and humanity. The chiefs who had hitherto been the isolated leaders of barbarous hordes, and owed their pre-eminence principally to their physical strength and ferocious courage, when combined in a joint expedition, practically learned the value of the political virtues, and found that to retain their superiority, it was necessary to brighten the lustre of martial spirit by the more valuable virtues of justice and humanity.

Questions.

1. Why is the early history of Greece difficult to investigate?
2. What were the first parts of Greece that were inhabited?
3. How many great tribes settled there?
4. How were the Hellenic families divided?
5. What great difference was there between the Hellenes and the Pelasgi?
6. Whence did colonies come to Greece?
7. Who were their leaders?
8. What improvements did they introduce?
9. How was the progress of civilization impeded?
10. Why was the Amphitryonic council instituted?
11. How was Greece disturbed at this time?
12. By whom were the robbers subdued?
13. What are the most celebrated events in the heroic ages?
14. What is certain respecting the Argonauts?
15. Had Pelias any reason to fear Jason?
16. Under what pretence was the Argonautic expedition proposed?
17. Who joined in the expedition?
18. What is remarkable of the ship Argo?
19. Whither did the Argonauts first proceed?
20. Did any remarkable events occur in the voyage?
21. What difficulties impeded their success?
22. How were they overcome?
23. By whom were the Argonauts accompanied on their return?
24. What took place in Thessaly after Jason came back?
25. Whither did Jason and Medea retire?
26. How did Medea revenge herself on Jason?
27. What became of Jason?
28. Did any beneficial consequences result from this expedition?

CHAPTER VII.

THE LIVES OF HERCULES AND THESEUS.

These, as you see, ride foremost in the field,
 As they the foremost rank of honour held,
 And all in deeds of chivalry excell'd :
 Their temples crown'd with leaves that still renew ;
 For deathless laurel is the victor's due.—DRYDEN.

THE name of Hercules appears to have been applied to

several heroes of antiquity ; the most remarkable of these, and indeed the one to whom the poets have attributed the actions of all the others, was born at Thebes. His history being almost totally derived from the poets, is of course for the most part fabulous ; still some knowledge of the fiction is necessary to an understanding of the numerous allusions made to his life and actions by the poets.

Alcmena, his mother, the grand-daughter of Perseus, was given in marriage to Amphitryon, a Theban prince, who was at the same time nominated successor to the Argive throne. After having lived a few months at Mycenæ, then the capital of Argolis, Amphitryon, by an unfortunate accident, killed his father-in-law, and was in consequence expelled from Mycenæ by Sthenelus, the father of Eurystheus. Amphitryon retired to Thebes, where the beauty of Alcmena attracted the notice and engaged the affections of Jupiter. Taking advantage of Amphitryon's absence, Jupiter assumed his shape, and visited Alcmena. Nearly at the same time, Alcmena was delivered of Hercules, her son by Jupiter, and Iphiclus the offspring of Amphitryon.

At a council of the gods, Jupiter declared that on that day a hero should be born, who should rule over all the heroes of the time. Juno, unwilling that such honour should be given to the son of her rival Alcmena, hastily left the council, and summoning to her aid Ilithyia, the goddess who presided over child-births, hurried Eurystheus, the son of Sthenelus, into the world two months before his time, and delayed the birth of Hercules to the following day. Jupiter was greatly enraged at this artifice, but having confirmed his previous declaration by an oath, the evil was irremediable. He, however, so far modified his promise, as to declare that Hercules should be free, after the performance of twelve specified labours.

The anger of Juno was not yet appeased ; she sent two serpents to destroy the infant hero in his cradle. Hercules

strangled them both ; and when the shrieks of his brother Iphiclus had summoned the domestics, they found the monsters lying dead on the floor, and Hercules smiling at his success. As the hero grew up, his youth fulfilled the expectations that had been raised by his early prowess. He slew a monstrous lion which devastated the flocks of his step-father Amphitryon on Mount Cithæron ; and he delivered his country from the annual tribute of one hundred oxen, which the Thebans were compelled to pay to Erginus, king of Orchomenus. Creon, king of Thebes, rewarded these services by giving him his daughter in marriage. The issue of this marriage was unfortunate, for Hercules, in a fit of insanity, killed Megara and her children.

This fit of insanity is said to have been caused by the summons he received from Eurystheus to come to Argolis, and commence the performance of his appointed labours. Having recovered from the delirium, he consulted the Delphic oracle, and in obedience to the precept of the god, presented himself before Eurystheus.

The first labour of Hercules was to kill the Nemean lion which devastated the country between the towns Nemæa and Mycenæ, in Argolis. The enormous size of the monster, and his invulnerable skin, made the execution of his task very difficult. Hercules at length compelled the beast to take refuge in a cave at the side of the mountain, and having secured the entrance, threw himself on the monster and strangled him. Hercules clothed himself in the spoils of the animal, and returned to Mycenæ, where Eurystheus was so terrified at the exploit, that he prohibited Hercules from entering the gates of the city, whenever he should return from his future labours, and had a brazen vessel constructed, into which he might retire at the approach of the hero.

The second labour of Hercules was the destruction of the hundred-headed Hydra, in the marshes of Lerna. As fast as he cut off one head of this monster, two sprouted

up in its place ; but Hercules having employed his friend Iolaus to sear every head with a red hot iron, finally destroyed it.

Eurystheus ordered Hercules, as a third task, to bring into his presence, alive, the Erimanthean boar that devastated the Arcadian mountains. On the arrival of Hercules in Arcadia, he was hospitably entertained by Pholus, the Centaur ; but Pholus refused to give him wine, alleging that the cask in his possession belonged to the Centaurs in general. Hercules unscrupulously broke the cask ; the Centaurs assembled to punish him ; a battle ensued, and Hercules almost extirpated the nation. Pholus, who survived this engagement, afterwards wounded himself with one of the arrows which Hercules had poisoned by dipping in the blood of the hydra, and died in consequence. Hercules honourably interred his host, and called one of the Arcadian mountains Pholoe, after his name. Proceeding thence to the object of his search, he overtook the Erimanthian boar by following its tracks in the snow, and brought it alive to Mycenæ. Eurystheus was so terrified at the sight of the boar, that he did not quit his brazen receptacle for several days.

In his fourth labour Hercules chased and caught a stag of incredible swiftness, in the woods of Œnoe. His fifth was to drive away the birds that infested the lake Stymphalis ; and in his sixth he cleansed the stables of Augeas, by turning the course of the river Peneus through them. His seventh labour was to bring alive into the Peloponnesus an enormous bull that devastated the island of Crete.

After this labour he, for a time, forsook the service of Eurystheus. The Olympic games which had been instituted by the Idæi Dactyli about two centuries before, were

B.C. now revived by Hercules, and he obtained the first
1222. prize in every species of contest. In consequence
of this, each of the gods made him a present, of which the
most remarkable was the brazen club given him by Vulcan.

Soon after, the war between the gods and Titans took place; Hercules assisted the former, and greatly contributed to their victory. As a reward for his services, he was ranked among the Olympic deities.

The eighth labour of Hercules was to obtain the horses of the Thracian Diomede, whose barbarous owner fed them on human flesh. He slew Diomede, and gave him to be devoured by his own horses, after which he brought them to Eurystheus. About this time he joined in the Argonautic expedition, but does not appear to have persevered to its conclusion.

In his ninth labour Hercules was ordered to procure the girdle of Hippolyta, queen of the Amazons. The Amazons were a nation of women who inhabited the shores of the Caspian sea; that such an extraordinary community did really exist appears pretty certain, though it is not easy to conceive how such a society could be formed and continued; Hercules conquered the Amazons, made the queen a captive, deprived her of the girdle, and gave her in marriage to his friend and companion Theseus.

Eurystheus commanded Hercules as a tenth labour to bring him the oxen of the triple-headed Geryon from Spain. On his journey thither, Hercules killed the Egyptian tyrant Busiris, and the boasting African wrestler Antæus; he also founded a city in Africa, and set up two pillars at the Fretum Gaditarum, to mark the boundaries of his progress westwards. Having slain Geryon he drove the oxen over the Pyrenees, into France, where he founded the city Alesia; and thence to Italy, where he slew the giant Cacus, who had basely attempted to steal some of the oxen. Passing thence into Sicily he overcame and slew the tyrant Eryx, and restored civilization, which the cruelties of Eryx had banished from the island.

His eleventh labour was to obtain the golden apples of the *Hesperides*. As Hercules was ignorant of the situa-

tion of these celebrated gardens, he applied for information to Nereus, by whom he was referred to Prometheus. Prometheus, for having frequently deceived Jupiter, is said to have been chained to Mount Caucasus, with a vulture perpetually feeding on his liver. Hercules shot the vulture, liberated Prometheus, and received in turn such directions as enabled him to bring the enterprize to a successful conclusion.

The last and greatest labour of Hercules was to bring up the dog Cerberus from the infernal regions. He is said to have descended into hell through a cave in Mount Taurus, and to have obtained from Pluto not only the dog as a present, but also the liberation of his two friends, Theseus and Perethous.

After the termination of his labours, Hercules fell in love with Iole, the daughter of Eurytus, king of Œchalia; her father refused to consent to their marriage, and Hercules, in a fit of insanity, slew Iphitus, the only brother of Iole that favoured his suit. As an expiation for this murder he was compelled to become the slave of Omphale, queen of Lydia; he won her affections and had three children by her during his servitude.

On his return to Greece he made Ætolia the place of his residence in consequence of the civil wars that devastated the Peloponnesus. Here he became attached to Dejanira, and overcame all the rivals who contested the possession of her hand. Shortly after his marriage with Dejanira an accidental homicide compelled him to quit Ætolia, and seek refuge at the court of Ceyx, king of Trachinia, a small district in Thessaly. On his journey thither he slew Nessus, the centaur, for offering an insult to Dejanira. The centaur, when dying, gave Dejanira a poisoned tunic, by which he assured her that she might at any time recal the wandering affections of her husband.

Hercules, after a long residence in Trachinia, resolved to make war on Eurytus for having formerly refused him

possession of Iole. The Œchalian king was conquered and slain, Iole became the captive of her former lover, and found that he was still as much attached to her as ever. When the news of these events reached Dejanira, she resolved to try the virtue of the centaur's gift. Hercules received the fatal garment as he was about to perform a solemn sacrifice; the tunic was no sooner put on than torturing pains racked his frame, and a secret fire consumed his bones. A funeral pile was, by his commands, immediately prepared, which he ascended with an unchanged countenance, a torch was applied to the pyre, and when the mortal parts of Hercules were consumed, his father received the hero up into heaven.

Theseus was the son of Ægeus, king of Attica. Ægeus was anxious to have a child to succeed him on the throne, as he particularly disliked his nephews the Pallantidæ. He went to consult the Delphic oracle, and on his return, delaying some time at the court of Pittheus, king of Træzene, he became intimate with his daughter Æthra, and left her pregnant when he returned to Athens. Before his departure he hid his sword and sandals beneath a large stone, directing Æthra if her child were a boy to send him to Athens when he should be able to lift that stone.

The superiority that Theseus gained over his equals induced them to taunt him with the obscurity of his birth; returning home indignant, he strictly questioned his mother on the subject, and having learned from her all the circumstances, he removed the stone, put on his father's sword, and determined to proceed to Athens.

The shortest and safest way of passing from Træzene to Athens would have been to sail across the Saronic gulph, but the fame that Hercules had obtained in conquering the robbers by whom the country was infested, stimulated

Theseus to emulate the exploits of that hero, and he therefore chose the route by land for the very reason that it would have been avoided by others. Innumerable were the perils that beset his path from the bands of robbers who infested the countries at both sides of the Corinthian isthmus. He slew Periphetes, famous for his immense club; Scinnis, whose strength was so great that he was called the pine-bender, and Phæa, an enormous sow, or as others say, a female robber that ravaged the country round Crommyon. Advancing beyond the bounds of Attica, he overthrew Cercyon in wrestling and put him to death for his cruelties, and finally he slew the tyrant Procrustes, who placed every stranger that he met in an iron bed, stretching his limbs by the rack if he were too short to fill it, and lopping them off, if his length was too great.

At length Theseus arrived in Attica, whither his fame had preceded him. Ægeus was at this time united to the sorceress Medea, she knew by her magical arts of the approach of Theseus, and dreading his influence, laboured successfully to inspire the aged king with jealousy of the gallant stranger. At a public entertainment Ægeus was about to present a poisoned cup to Theseus, when luckily he recognized his own sword suspended by the stranger's side. A brief explanation shewed that his own son stood before him, Ægeus threw down the goblet, embraced his son, and acknowledged him as his heir to the throne of Athens. Medea in consequence fled to Colchis, and the Pallantidæ enraged at seeing their hope of succeeding to the throne thus destroyed, took up arms, but were soon subdued by Theseus.

Androgeos, the son of Minos, the Cretan king, had been murdered at Athens through the jealousy of some Athenian youths, who were enraged at being surpassed by a stranger; Minos, in revenge, waged war against Athens, and spared the city only on the harsh condition of their

sending seven young men and as many virgins annually to Crete, to be devoured in the labyrinth by the Minotaur. Theseus, confident of his power to destroy the monster, offered himself as one of the seven, and after some remonstrance, *Ægeus* consented. It was agreed that if the expedition succeeded, the vessel should, on her return, hoist a white sail instead of the black one which she usually bore.

On their arrival in Crete, Theseus had the good fortune to captivate the affections of *Ariadne*, the daughter of *Minos*; she supplied him with a clew of thread, which prevented him from going astray. He was fortunate enough to slay the Minotaur, and was permitted to return to Athens with the companions he had rescued from death. *Ariadne* eloped with the Athenian prince, but for some unexplained reason he had the meanness to desert his royal benefactress in the island of *Naxos*.

The delight that the return of Theseus might have caused in Athens was clouded by the death of *Ægeus*; in joy at their escape, they forgot to hoist the white sail, and *Ægeus*, who saw from a distance the vessel approaching with the signal of death, precipitated himself headlong from a rock and was killed.

Theseus ascended the throne of Athens, and laid the foundation of its future greatness by uniting the twelve Attic tribes into one nation, of which Athens was the capital. *Pirithous*, king of the *Lapithæ*, having invaded Attica, and taken some oxen from the plains of *Marathon*, Theseus with a hastily levied body pursued and overtook him; but instead of coming to an engagement the two princes became an example of a friendship as pure and romantic as any recorded in history.

Theseus was present at the marriage of his friend, and aided him in punishing severely the brutal insult offered to the bride by some of the *Lapithæ*. Besides engaging in this war between the *Lapithæ* and *Centaurs*, Theseus is

said by several authors to have joined in the Argonautic expedition, and the hunting of the Calydonian boar.

The first wife of Theseus was Hippolyte, who had been given him by Hercules, she died after having given birth to one son, called after her, Hippolytus. His second wife was Phædra, a daughter of Minos. Soon after her marriage she fell in love with her step-son, Hippolytus, and when that virtuous youth spurned her addresses, she accused him to his father of having attempted to debauch her. Theseus too readily crediting the accusation of his wife, bitterly cursed his son, and as he had been promised by Neptune the granting of the first request he should make, he invoked the god to destroy Hippolytus. The sea-god terrified the horses which drew the chariot of the unfortunate Hippolytus, and Theseus learned his error when too late; for Phædra no sooner heard of this catastrophe than she confessed her guilt, and hanged herself in despair.

Pirithous about the same time became a widower, and the two friends prepared to provide themselves with wives by violence. The beauty of Helen, though as yet only in her seventh year, was celebrated throughout Greece, and she became the first object of their violent attempts. The friends succeeded in bearing her away from Sparta, and having cast lots, she fell into the possession of Theseus. It was now necessary to provide a wife for Pirithous, and Proserpine, the wife of Pluto, king of the infernal regions, according to the poets, but the daughter of Aidoneus, the king of the Molossi, according to historians, was the next object of attack. In this enterprize the friends were very unfortunate, they were both made prisoners, and subjected to a long confinement, until at length they were released by Hercules.

During the absence of Theseus, Menestheus, a near connection of the Athenian royal family, had completely ingratiated himself with the people; the violence offered to

Helen, and the threats of her brothers, the Dioskouroi had alienated from Theseus the affections of his subjects, and he was obliged in his old days to become an exile at the court of Lycomedes, king of Scyros. Here he was killed by a fall from a precipice, either by accident or by the treachery of Lycomedes, who is said to have been bribed by Menestheus to commit this crime.

After the death of Menestheus, Demophoon, the son of Theseus ascended the throne of Athens, and had his father enrolled among the demigods. Several centuries after, the Athenians were warned by an oracle to send for the bones of Theseus : the conduct of the expedition was entrusted to Cimon, the son of Miltiades, who brought them to Athens, where a magnificent temple was erected to his memory.

The vessel in which Theseus returned from Crete, continued for several centuries to be used as the sacred galley of the Athenians ; in consequence of her many successive repairs not a particle of her original materials remained in the course of time, and hence arose the celebrated question of identity, viz. whether she was or was not the *same* galley in which Theseus had sailed.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE WARS OF THEBES.

Still my revenge shall take its proper time,
And suit the baseness of your hellish crime.

CROXALL.

1. AFTER the Argonautic expedition most of the Argonauts joined in hunting the Calydonian boar. 2. Ceneus, the king of that part of Etolia of which Calydon was the capital, had neglected to offer a sacrifice to Diana, when he was paying homage to the other deities ; in revenge the goddess stirred up his neighbours, who assailed him on all

sides, and sent in addition a monstrous boar, which devastated the country. 3. Meleager, the son of *Æneus*, on his return from the Argonautic expedition, resolved to rescue his own country from the evils under which it was suffering. 4. The Fates who were present at his birth had foretold the future greatness of Meleager : *Clotho* declared that he should possess courage and bravery ; *Lachesis* predicted his uncommon strength ; and *Atropos* declared that he would live as long as the brand then burning on the fire would remain unconsumed. His mother, *Althea*, snatched the brand from the pile, and kept it with the greatest caution. 5. The assembled princes sought out the boar, and after a long and furious contest, the formidable monster was slain by Meleager. The victor presented the spoils to the beautiful heroine *Atalanta**, who had joined in this expedition also. The brothers of *Althea*, jealous of the honour thus given to a woman, attempted to wrest the trophies from her, and in the scuffle that ensued Meleager unfortunately slew his maternal uncles.

6. *Althea*, who was in the temple returning thanks for her son's victories, no sooner heard of the subsequent slaughter of her brothers, than she rushed furiously home,

* This celebrated heroine was born in *Arcadia*, and had resolved to spend her life in perpetual celibacy. Her beauty, however, attracted so many suitors, that to free herself from their importunities she proposed to run a race with the several competitors. If any of the suitors arrived first at the goal, he would obtain the hand of *Atalanta* in marriage, but if she was victorious, the lover should atone for his temerity by his life. Many of her suitors perished in the attempt, until *Hippomenes*, the son of *Macareus*, presented himself in the lists. *Venus* had given him three golden apples, of exquisite beauty, which he threw down before *Atalanta* in the race : enticed by their splendour she stopped to pick them up, and *Hippomenes* thus was enabled to reach the goal, and obtain the prize. *Atalanta* was a sharer in the Argonautic expedition, and in several wars with the Centaurs, where she particularly distinguished herself by military skill and courage.

threw the fatal brand into the fire, and Meleager expired as soon as it was consumed.

7. We have already mentioned the foundation of Thebes by Cadmus : his grandson, Bacchus *, is said to have discovered the use of wine, and to have conducted an expedition to India ; but the rest of his posterity were doomed to unmingled misery. 8. Antiope, the mother of Amphion and Zethus, by Jupiter, having incurred the jealousy of Dirce, the Theban queen, was subjected to a long and cruel imprisonment. Having made her escape, she stimulated her sons to avenge her wrongs, and they stormed Thebes, slew Lycus, the king, and tied Dirce to the tail of a bull, who dragged her over precipices until she expired miserably. 9. Amphion is said to have built the walls of Thebes by his superior skill in music ; the stones, obedient to his lyre, having formed themselves into walls and battlements. His brother Zethus had so great an antipathy to music, that he refused to live with Amphion, unless the lyre were laid aside, and the generous musician actually made this sacrifice to his brother's prejudices.

10. After the murder of Lycus, the kingdom of Thebes came to Laius. Shortly after his marriage with Jocasta, an oracle foretold that he should be murdered by his son. To prevent this, he ordered the child to be strangled at its birth. The mother, however, could not bring herself to murder her first-born, and she gave him to her servants to be exposed on Mount Cithæron. 11. They having bound

* Bacchus is said to have been the son of Jupiter and Semele : his mother requested the god to appear to her in the full glory of his celestial radiance ; the request was granted, but the sight was too effulgent to be borne by mortal eyes, and Semele died before her child was yet born. Jupiter took charge of the premature infant, and educated him with the greatest care. Bacchus seems to have been the same as the Egyptian Osiris, for the Greeks have always attributed to him the exploits of the Egyptian deity, especially in their account of the war between the Titans and the gods.

the infant by the legs, hung him from a tree on the mountain: Polybus, king of Corinth, happening to pass by, took compassion upon the unfortunate situation of the child, and having brought him to Corinth, educated him as his heir. He was named Œdipus from the swelling of his feet, in consequence of the tight ligatures with which they were bound.

12. When Œdipus grew up, his companions, envying his superior address, reproached him with the obscurity of his birth, and told him that he was an illegitimate child. His adopted mother, Peribea, in vain assured him that the slander was groundless; he resolved to seek the oracle of Delphi, and there seek to have his doubts removed. 13. The response of the oracle was, that "If Œdipus returned home, he should be the murderer of his father, and the husband of his mother." Terrified at such a horrible prediction, Œdipus resolved never to revisit Corinth, but seek his fortune in other lands.

14. Passing through Phocis towards the confines of Bœotia, Œdipus met his father Laius driving a chariot in a narrow road; the Theban king insulted the youthful traveller; a scuffle ensued; the prediction of the oracle was accomplished; Laius fell by the hand of his son. 15. When the news of the monarch's death reached Thebes, Creon assumed the reins of government; but finding himself unable to resist the ravages of the sphinx *, a monster sent by Juno to devastate Bœotia, he offered the

* The sphinx was a monster sent by Juno to devastate the Theban territories, in consequence of the bitter hatred she felt towards the entire posterity of Cadmus. This monster had the head and breasts of a woman; the body of a dog; the tail of a serpent; and a human voice. It proposed enigmas to all passengers, and slew those who were unable to reply. The riddle proposed to Œdipus was, "What animal is four-legged in the morning, two-legged at noon, and three-legged in the evening?" Œdipus replied that it was man, who in infancy crawls on all-fours, walks erect at noon, and assumes a crutch in old age.

Theban sceptre and the hand of Jocasta to any person who could extirpate this plague. 16. Œdipus solved the celebrated enigma of the sphinx, and the monster destroyed herself with vexation. The promised reward was given; Œdipus received the hand of Jocasta, and thus the entire response of the oracle was fulfilled.

17. The offspring of this unnatural union were two sons, Eteocles and Polynices, and two daughters, Ismene and Antigone. After some years had elapsed, Thebes was devastated by a plague, and the oracle declared that the pestilence should continue until the murder of Laius was avenged. 18. Enquiries were instituted; Œdipus, on learning the extent of the crimes which he had ignorantly committed, tore out his eyes, and Jocasta hanged herself.

19. Œdipus retired to Athens, attended by his daughter Antigone, and the kingdom of Thebes was seized upon by Eteocles and Polynices. They agreed to reign alternately; but at the end of the first year, Eteocles not only refused to resign the throne, but compelled his brother to seek safety in flight.

20. Polynices fled to Argos, where he married the B. C. daughter of Adrastus, king of that country, and 1225. by his interest levied a numerous army, and marched against Eteocles. This is usually called "the expedition of the Seven against Thebes," from the seven generals who commanded the allied forces; their names were Adrastus, Tydeus, Capaneus, Eteocles, Parthenopæus, Amphiaraus*, and Polynices.

* Amphiaraus had been informed by an oracle that he should perish in the Theban war, and to avoid the danger concealed himself. Polynices bribed Eriphyle with a golden necklace to betray the place where her husband was concealed, and thus Amphiaraus was compelled to set out on an expedition which he knew would prove fatal. Before his departure he ordered his son Alcmaeon to put Eriphyle to death as soon as his own fate had been ascertained. Alcmaeon executed the barbarous command when he heard that Amphiaraus had been swallowed up by the earth after the defeat at Thebes.

21. After many indecisive engagements, it was agreed that the brothers should decide the quarrel by single combat. They accordingly met, and such was their inveterate hatred, that both fell by mutual wounds. 22. Creon, who succeeded to the Theban throne, then led out his forces against the Argives, and defeated them with terrible* slaughter; Adrastus alone of the seven captains survived.

23. Creon forbade that any person, under pain of death, should give the rites of sepulture to any of the fallen; but Antigone, who had returned to Thebes after the death of Œdipus, undismayed by the edict of the tyrant, threw some dust on the body of her brother Polynices, for which "maimed rite of sepulture" she was put to death by Creon. 24. This atrocious cruelty did not long remain unpunished; Hæmon, the only son of the king, who had been passionately attached to Antigone, slew himself over her grave, and Creon himself was soon after killed by Theseus, who, at the instigation of Adrastus, led an army against the Thebans for their impiety in refusing the Argives the rites of burial.

25. The sons of the Seven chieftains, about ten years after, undertook a second expedition against Thebes, to avenge the death of their fathers. This is called the war of the *Epigoni*. The allies were headed by Alcmaeon the son of Amphiaraus, the leader of the Thebans was Leodamas, the son of Eteocles. The two armies came to an engagement on the banks of the Glissas; after a sanguinary conflict the Thebans were routed with great slaughter, their leader slain and their city captured. 27. It is remarkable that Ægialeus was the only general of the in-

* Capaneus died blaspheming Jupiter. Tydeus, who was the bravest of the seven chiefs, being mortally wounded by Melanippus, whom he slew, ordered the head of his enemy to be brought him, and began to gnaw the brains in impotent vengeance. Minerva, his patron goddess, who was hastening to his relief with a celestial remedy, was so disgusted at his barbarity that she flew back to heaven and left him to perish.

vaders who fell, and his father Adrastus was the only survivor of the former war.

28. In consequence of these wars, the Thebans became odious to the rest of the Greeks, and they repaid this hatred by infidelity to the Hellenic cause during the Persian invasion.

Questions.

1. What was the next heroic expedition ?
2. Why was the Calydonian boar sent by Diana ?
3. Who prepared to hunt it ?
4. At the birth of Meleager how did the Fates act ?
5. How did the hunt terminate ?
6. Did Althæa revenge the death of her brothers ?
7. Who was the most fortunate of the Cadmean line ?
8. How was Antiope avenged ?
9. What fable is related of Amphion's musical power ?
10. Why did Laius wish to have his son destroyed ?
11. How was the infant saved ?
12. For what reasons did Œdipus visit Delphi ?
13. What was the response of the oracle ?
14. How was the first part of it fulfilled ?
15. What monster devastated Thebes ?
16. How was the second part of the oracle fulfilled ?
17. Had Œdipus any children ?
18. What followed on the fatal discovery ?
19. Whither did Œdipus go ?
20. Who then took the Theban kingdom ?
21. How was it agreed to terminate the war ?
22. By whom were the allies defeated ?
23. How were the commands of Creon violated ?
24. How was Creon punished ?
25. Who commanded the Epigoni ?
26. What success had they ?
27. Did any remarkable captain fall ?
28. Were the effects of the Theban wars long felt ?

CHAPTER IX.

THE TROJAN WAR.

Now sleep and silence
Brood o'er the city. The devoted sentinel
Now takes his lonely stand, and idly dreams
Of that to-morrow he shall never see.

BROWN.

1. In consequence of the brutal violence offered by Tantalus, a Lydian prince, to Ganymede, the son of Tros, Tantalus and his son Pelops were compelled to quit Asia and seek for refuge in a foreign land. Pelops, with a considerable band of followers, came to Pisa and offered himself as a candidate for the hand of the king's daughter.

2. Cœnomaus, the Pisan monarch, had been informed by an oracle that he should be slain by his son-in-law, he, therefore, relying on the superior speed of his horses, declared that he would marry his daughter only to him who should outstrip him in a chariot-race, on condition that all who entered the lists should lay down their lives if conquered.

3. Harsh as was this condition, the beauty of Hippodamia, her father's extensive dominion, and her maternal claim on the throne of Argos, for her mother was descended from Acrisius, induced several suitors to make the trial, and many had paid the forfeit of their temerity when Pelops arrived in Pisa. 4. He bribed Myrtilus, the king's charioteer, to give his master a chariot with a very frail axle-tree; this broke in the middle of the course, and Cœnomaus was killed by the fall. 5. Pelops punished Myrtilus for his perfidy, and having obtained the hand of Hippodamia, acquired so much influence in Southern Greece as to have it called the Peloponnesus instead of its former name the Apian land.

6. The descendants of Pelops were criminal and unfortunate; his natural son Chrysippus was murdered by Hippodamia, and Pelops in revenge expelled her children, Atreus and Thyestes, who fled to Argos, where Atreus having married the daughter of king Eurystheus, acquired the Argive throne. 7. Thyestes seduced his brother's wife, and Atreus, having in revenge murdered the children of Thyestes, served them up to their father at a banquet. Thyestes fled to Sicyon, where he lived for some time in unnatural intercourse with his own daughter Pelopea, by whom he had a son, Ægisthus. 8. Pelopea afterwards came to Argos, and on the death of the queen married her uncle, on condition that her son should be treated as one of the royal family. 9. When Ægisthus grew up, Atreus employed him to assassinate Thyestes, but the father and son having recognised each other, Ægisthus returned to Argos, and having soon after murdered Atreus, placed Thyestes on the throne.

10. Plisthenes, the eldest son of Atreus, had died very young, leaving two sons Agamemnon and Menelaus. They married the daughters of Tyndareus, king of Laconia, and by this connection acquired a paramount influence in the Peloponnesus. Agamemnon soon expelled the usurper and ascended the throne of his grandfather, while Menelaus, in right of his wife Helen, became king of Sparta.

11. The children of Tyndareus and Leda were the Dioskouroi, Clytemnestra and Helen. The beauty of the latter was so celebrated, that Theseus carried her off before her tenth year. After her restoration Tyndareus found himself placed in circumstances of great difficulty, by the number of suitors who aspired to her hand; at length, by the advice of Ulysses, he determined to leave the choice to Helen herself, having first bound all the candidates by an oath, that they would rest satisfied with her decision, *and that they would all unite in securing her possession to*

the husband of her choice. 12. This advice was followed. Menelaus was the fortunate candidate, they were soon united, and their union was early blessed by the birth of a daughter, Hermione. 13. After three years of mutual happiness, Paris, a younger son of the Trojan monarch Priam, during the absence of Menelaus visited the dominions of his hereditary enemies, and solicited the rights of hospitality at the Spartan court. His person, his accomplishments, his address, and still more the dangers he had encountered for her sake, seduced the inconstant affections of the Grecian queen. 14. Enamoured of the elegant stranger, she abandoned her country and her husband, and having transported her most valuable treasures with her to Troy, she defied the resentment of Greece and the vengeance of Heaven.

15. It was now the time for Menelaus to crave the stipulated assistance of his ancient rivals. His demand was enforced by the authority of Agamemnon. At the summons of the two princes, the confederates assembled at Ægium, confirmed the obligation of their former promise, settled the proportion of troops to be raised by each prince, and elected Agamemnon Captain-general of the allied forces.

16. Aulis, a sea-port of Bœotia, was appointed as the place of rendezvous and embarkation. Ulysses king of Ithaca, and Menelaus himself, were sent as ambassadors to Sparta to demand restitution and reparation, but were obliged to return after having narrowly escaped with their lives. 17. The indignity offered to their ambassadors increased the ardour of the allies, but contrary * winds long

* Agamemnon having unfortunately slain a hind sacred to Diana, the goddess punished him by sending contrary winds, which prevented the sailing of the fleet. Calchas, the soothsayer and prophet was consulted, and declared that until Iphigenia was sacrificed the anger of the goddess would detain the fleet in Aulis. Ulysses being despatched to Mycenæ, obtained Iphigenia from her mother on pretence that she was about to

detained them at Aulis. The anger of the gods being appeased by the sacrifice of Iphigenia, a favourable wind at length sprung up, and the fleet passed over to the Phrygian shores.

18. During the delay at Aulis, Priam had collected a numerous army from his neighbours and allies; his son Hector attacked the Greeks at the very moment of their landing, and Protesilaus, a Thessalian prince, was the first victim of this celebrated war. 19. The Trojans however were defeated, and forced to shut themselves up within their city, the strength of whose walls defied assault, while their great extent rendered a blockade impossible.

20. During the ten years' siege, the Greeks supported their army by the plunder of the neighbouring towns, and when that resource was exhausted, they sent over detachments of troops to the opposite shores of the Thracian Chersonese, whose fertile vallies had been lately deserted by the former inhabitants, in consequence of the incursions of the barbarians, and from thence considerable supplies were regularly sent to the Grecian encampment.

21. In the tenth year a dreadful pestilence invaded the camp of the besiegers, and long continued to rage with unabating fury. 22. This calamity was followed by the well-known quarrel between Agamemnon and Achilles, which deprived the Grecian camp of its principal strength and ornament. The Trojans took advantage of these circumstances, and sallying from the walls, risked several engagements, in the most of which they were victorious. In the last of these Patroclus, the beloved friend of Achilles, was slain by Hector. The Grecian hero forgot the quarrel, in his eagerness for vengeance, and returning

be married to Achilles. When the victim was placed before the altar, Diana suddenly substituted a hind in her place, and carrying her away to the Tauric Chersonese, made Iphigenia a priestess in her temple.

to his countrymen defeated the Trojans, and slew Hector.

B.C. 1184. 23. The destruction of Troy soon followed the death of her bravest champion. The poets relate that the Greeks, under pretence of making an atonement to Minerva, whose image Ulysses had stolen, sent into the city a wooden horse, fabricated by Epeus, filled with armed men, which being opened by the Greeks when the Trojans were buried in wine and sleep, the city was easily captured. 24. The Greeks exercised their triumph with great cruelty; the city was set on fire, most of the citizens perished by the sword, or were dragged into captivity, and only a miserable remnant escaped, through the confused horror of raging flames and expiring kinsmen.

25. Neither the city nor territory ever assumed, in any succeeding age, the dignity of independent government; the sea coast was planted eighty years after the Trojan war by new colonies from Greece; and the inland parts submitted to the growing power of the Lydians, whose arms overspread and conquered the finest provinces of lower Asia.

26. The Greeks had obtained all the objects they had in view; Helen was recovered, the enemy were completely destroyed, and the Trojan name extirpated, but subsequent misfortunes left them little reason to boast of their victory. Achilles and Ajax, with many of their bravest commanders, had fallen before the walls; the sea buried many others on their return home; some travelled long in distant lands ere they could find their way to their native country, and many of those who were so far fortunate as to regain their homes, found their thrones filled by usurpers, and their beds dishonoured by adultery.

27. Ulysses, after ten years wandering, arrived in Ithaca, and found his treasures exhausted, and his lands *laid waste*. Diomede, Idomeneus, and others, led colonies

into the south of Italy; and Agamemnon perished by the dagger of his cousin Ægisthus*, who was instigated by Clytemnestra to commit the crime. Thus the most celebrated enterprize of combined Greece tended to involve that delightful and happy country in barbarism and misery.

28. Æneas is said to have conducted a band of Trojan exiles into Italy, and to have been the remote ancestor of Romulus; but the tradition rests on very slight authority, and is directly contradicted by Homer, who avers that he reigned long and prosperously over Phrygia, after the return of the Grecians from this famous and fatal war.

Questions.

1. For whose hand did Pelops offer himself a candidate?
2. On what condition was Hippodamia to be obtained?
3. Were there many suitors?
4. How did Pelops prevail?
5. What shews the extent of influence acquired by Pelops?
6. By what crimes was his family polluted?
7. What crimes did Thyestes commit?
8. Whither did Pelopea go afterwards?
9. On what occasion did Ægisthus recognize his father?
10. How were the Atreidæ restored to the throne?
11. In what manner was a husband for Helen chosen?
12. Had Helen any children by Menelaus?
13. When did Paris arrive in Sparta?

* Orestes, the son of Agamemnon, avenged the murder of his father, by slaying both Ægisthus and Clytemnestra. For the crime of putting his mother to death, Orestes was punished by the gods with insanity. In the interval of the fits he was told that his crime could only be expiated by his bringing the image of Diana from the Tauric Chersonese into Greece. He set out on this expedition, accompanied by his friend Pylades; both were seized, and about to be put to death by the barbarous inhabitants. Iphigenia, the priestess, offered life to one of them, provided that he would take letters for her to Greece. Each of the friends wished to save the other's life, and during this generous discussion Iphigenia discovered her brother. By her aid the two friends obtained the statue, and escaped in company with Iphigenia to Greece.

14. Did he violate the laws of hospitality ?
15. How did Menelaus act in consequence ?
16. Where did the allied forces rendezvous ?
17. Did they send any embassy to Troy ?
18. Was there any battle fought at their landing ?
19. What was the event ?
20. How were the Greeks supported during the siege ?
21. What calamity in the tenth year afflicted the besiegers ?
22. To what events did the anger of Achilles give rise ?
23. How was Troy taken ?
24. Were the conquered mercifully treated ?
25. How were the Trojan territories divided ?
26. Did the victors return safe ?
27. What became of Ulysses, Agamemnon, and Diomedes ?
28. What is the true history of Æneas ?



CHAPTER X.

THE RETURN OF THE HERACLEIDÆ, AND COLONIZATION OF ASIA MINOR.

Ask we the savage hills we tread
 For fatten'd steer or household bread ?
 Ask we for food these shingles dry ?
 And well the mountains might reply,
 " To you, as to your sires of yore,
 " Belong the target and claymore ;
 " We give you shelter in our breast,
 " Your own good blades must win the rest."

SCOTT.

1. WE have seen how the posterity of Pelops, by various means, obtained possession of the entire Peloponnesus, to the exclusion of the more ancient dynasties. Their most powerful rivals were the Perseidæ, who claimed descent from Jupiter, and boasted that their family had been most productive of heroes, claiming Perseus, Bellerophon,

Hercules, and many others as their own. The persecution which Hercules had endured was extended to his children—they were divested of their possessions, and driven into banishment.

2. After being hospitably received by the Athenians, and protected from the vindictive pursuit of their enemies, they retired to the mountainous district of Doris, where their leader, Hyllus, was adopted by Epalius, monarch of that country; and the death of their benefactor shortly after made the Heracleidæ masters of that wild and barren province.

3. The savage hills of Doris were ill calculated to satisfy men whose ancestors had been deprived of so much more valuable possessions; but the growing greatness of the Pelopidæ, and especially the extensive power obtained by the sons of Atreus, checked their natural ambition.

4. The unexpected events which followed the siege of Troy, the mingled crimes and misfortunes which humbled the family of Agamemnon, and the dislike which a long series of atrocities had every where excited against the descendants of Atreus, encouraged the Heracleidæ to make an effort to regain their hereditary rights.

5. Twice they ineffectually attempted to break through the Corinthian isthmus, and both times were repulsed with considerable loss. 6. At length Temenus, Cresephontes, and Aristodemus, descendants in the fifth degree from Hercules, instructed by past misfortunes, abandoned as hopeless the design of entering the Peloponnesus by land, and resolved to try their fortune in a naval expedition.

7. The rendezvous of the adventurers was Naupactus, a seaport on the Corinthian gulf; here they were joined by a body of Etolians, under the command of Oxylyus, nearly related to the family of Hercules, and by several of the Dorian tribes, who were anxious to exchange the gloomy solitude of their forests for a more fertile and civilized country.

B.C. 8. The invaders were completely successful.

1104. Lacedæmon was betrayed into their hands, Argos submitted without a struggle, Corinth, Messenia, and Elis yielded to their arms, and all the Peloponnesus except Arcadia and Achaia acknowledged for sovereigns the descendants of Hercules. 9. This complete revolution was effected without much bloodshed, but not without great oppression of the vanquished, many of whom emigrated, and many more were reduced to slavery. 10. In consequence of this invasion, Greece for a time retrograded in civilization; the hardy mountaineers of Doris despised the arts of the people they had conquered, as unwarlike and effeminate; the states north of the peninsula were too much engaged in checking the ambitious progress of the Heracleidæ to have leisure for the pursuits of literature, and it is among the exiles whom these varied events had driven over to the fertile lands and genial climate of Asia Minor that we find the first specimens of those colossal monuments of human genius which have made the literature of Greece immortal.

B.C. 11. Two of the Pelopidæ conducted a large

1044. body of the exiles to the ancient kingdom of Priam, and gradually extending their dominions from Cyzicus, on the Propontis, to the mouth of the river Hermus, gave this rich district the name of Æolia. 12. The disputes that took place in Athens after the death of Codrus led to the Ionic migration. The younger sons of Codrus, dissatisfied with the abolition of royalty, collected a numerous band of Athenians, and being joined by several of the Messenian and Achean exiles, sailed over to Asia Minor, and took possession of the provinces bordering on the sea-coast, from the banks of the Hermus to the promontory of Posideion. 13. Some of the Dorians who had accompanied the Heracleidæ made an attempt to establish themselves north of the Peloponnesus, but being defeated, they also crossed the Ægean, and took possession of the

peninsula of Caria, which in honour of their mother country received the name of Doris.

14. Thus about 240 years after the Trojan war, was the entire western coast of Asia Minor planted by the Æolians in the north, the Ionians in the middle, and the Dorians in the south. Of these the Ionians were the most distinguished by their wealth, civilization, and extensive commerce, until their increasing riches and numbers excited the avarice or the jealousy of the powers of Asia. 15. They were successively conquered by the Lydians and Persians, but never thoroughly subdued, and though their various struggles for freedom are imperfectly recorded, enough is left to shew that their example afforded a bright precedent to the heroes of Marathon and Platea, and inspired that spirit which enabled the Greeks by the most splendid series of exploits recorded in history, first to resist, then to invade, and finally to subdue the monarchy of Cyrus.

16. The Greek states in Asia Minor appear to have borne the same relation to the powerful empires of the ancient world which the small Italian republics and the Hanseatic towns in the middle ages bore to the flourishing countries of France, Germany, and England. 17. Though their own territory was confined to a narrow strip of the sea-coast, they sent out colonies in every direction where a commercial station seemed likely to be advantageous. They engrossed the carrying trade of all the seas in the east of Europe, and having convenient and capacious harbours before them, and behind the populous and wealthy nations of Asia, whose commerce they enjoyed and engrossed, they arrived at a pitch of prosperity as brilliant as it was brief.

18. Greek literature was first produced in the Ionian colonies. With the utmost industry and perseverance they improved and ennobled the useful or elegant arts which they found already practised among the Phrygians and Lydians. They incorporated the music of these nations

with their own. 19. Their poetry far exceeded whatever Pagan antiquity boasts of as most precious, for Homer and most of the Lyric poets were natives of this favoured clime. 20. They were the first who made statues of marble, and their skill in architecture is recorded by the Doric and Ionic orders, retaining at the present day the names of their inventors. They were, also, the first who reduced painting to a system; and the magnificent presents which the Delphic oracle received from the piety or ostentation of the Lydian kings were the production of Ionian artists. 21. Finally, Ionia was the parent of philosophy, and it was by natives of that country that science and taste were diffused over Greece, Italy, and Sicily. The father of Greek philosophy was Thales, a native of Miletus, in Ionia.

22. Their skill in science incidentally appears from a circumstance that occurred at the interview which Aristagoras had with the rulers of Lacedæmon; on that occasion he shewed them a map of the known world, engraved on a brazen tablet, and pointed out on it the different countries through which the Spartans should pass in order to invade Persia. If we consider how much knowledge the construction of this map must have required, it will appear that science must have been early and diligently cultivated in the Ionian colonies.

Questions.

1. Who were the rivals of the Pelopidæ?
2. How did the Heracleidæ obtain a settlement in Doris?
3. Did they regret the loss of the Peloponnesus?
4. What events gave them reason to hope for a return?
5. Were they successful in their first efforts?
6. Did they change their plan?
7. Where did they rendezvous?
8. Did they succeed?
9. In what manner did they treat the vanquished?
10. What ill effect followed from this invasion?
11. Did the Pelopidæ found any colony?

12. What led to the Ionic migration ?
13. Was there not a colony sent out by the Dorians ?
14. Where were the different colonies located ?
15. How did they lose their liberties ?
16. To what states in modern history were these colonies similar ?
17. Did they cultivate commerce ?
18. What improvements were made by the Ionians ?
19. How is their excellence in poetry proved ?
20. In what other fine arts were they distinguished ?
21. For what else are they remarkable ?
22. How is their skill in science proved ?



CHAPTER XI.

LIFE OF CRÆSUS.

But he that is of reason's skill bereft,
 And wants the staffe of wisdom him to stay,
 Is like a ship in midst of tempest left,
 Withouten helme or pilot her to sway.

SPENSER.

THE fertile territories of Lydia are watered by the Pactolus, celebrated for its golden sands, and the Cayster, remarkable for the number of swans that crown its banks. The first race of Lydian sovereigns were the Alyattidæ, to these succeeded the Heracleidæ, of whom Candaules was the last. A foolish insult that this prince had offered his queen provoked her to combine with Gyges, a captain of the royal guards, for the dethronement of her husband, and Candaules was deposed and murdered.

The successors of Gyges, more warlike than the former race, soon became troublesome neighbours to the Greek states in Asia Minor. Alyattes, the third in succession from Gyges, annually invaded the territories, and destroyed its harvests. With ingenious cruelty *he left the houses standing, that the inhabitants might*

B.C.
718.

B.C.
619.

return to cultivate those fields whose fruits he was determined that they should not reap. The Miletians, enjoying an extensive commerce, were not exposed to the horrors of famine, as Alyattes had hoped, the termination of the war seemed to be as distant in the twelfth year, as it had been in the first, when it was suddenly ended, by circumstances as strange as they were unforeseen.

B.C. In his twelfth expedition into the territory of
607. Miletus, Alyattes burned down the temple of Minerva. Soon after, falling sick at Sardis, he sent to the Delphic oracle to enquire how his health might be restored; the priestess refused to give him any answer, until the temple of Minerva was rebuilt. Thrasybulus, the tyrant of Miletus, received timely intimation of these circumstances from his friend Periander, of Corinth, and took his measures accordingly. When the Lydian ambassadors came to Miletus to propose a truce while the temple was being rebuilt, they were astonished instead of seeing any marks of scarcity from the long blockade, to behold markets overflowing with provisions, sold at prices that would be astonishingly cheap even in ordinary circumstances. On their return they related what they had seen to Alyattes, and the Lydian king, despairing of victory, made peace with the people of Miletus.

B.C. The reign of Alyattes was the longest and most
562. prosperous in the Lydian annals. At his death Cræsus ascended the Lydian throne; and from the successes that he obtained in the commencement of his reign, seemed likely to eclipse the glory of his predecessors. He took advantage of the jealousy of the Asiatic Greeks, and the ignorance of the Barbarians, to subdue the greater part of Lesser Asia, and reckoned among his subjects three Greek and eleven native Asiatic nations.

The subjugation of the Greek islands was the next project which ambition suggested to Cræsus, and to effect this he made preparations for equipping a fleet. From

this design he was diverted by the witty argument of Pittacus, the Lesbian philosopher*. Pittacus was travelling through the East to acquire knowledge, as was usual at the period, and was presented at the court of Cræsus, then a favourite resort of literary men. Cræsus enquired whether there was any news in Greece; Pittacus replied, that the islanders had collected powerful squadrons of cavalry, with the intention of invading Lydia. "May the gods grant," said Cræsus, "that the Greeks, who are unacquainted with horsemanship, should attack the disciplined valour of the Lydian cavalry; there would soon be an end of the matter."—"In the same manner," answered Pittacus, "as if the Lydians, who are totally unexperienced in naval affairs, should attack the Grecians by sea." The Lydian was so struck with the force of this argument, that he laid aside his preparations, and entered into alliance with the Grecian states.

The court of Cræsus was one of the most splendid in that or any age. Unlike other eastern monarchs, the Lydian king had acquired a taste for Greek literature and philosophy, and readily received every one of the men of genius whom the celebrity of his hospitality brought to Sardis. His celebrated interview with Solon will be found in the third chapter of Pinnock's Greece; and while we admire the candour of the philosopher, let us not withhold our meed of praise from the patience with which the monarch received his rebuke.

The first calamity that shaded the hitherto prosperous career of Cræsus, was the death of his beloved son Atys. He had dreamed that Atys should be slain by a dart, and the precautions which he took to avert the danger probably accelerated it; for youth is ever more anxious for forbidden pleasures. At a hunting party, the Lydian

* Some assert that it was Bias of Priene in Ionia who used this argument.

prince, while eagerly pursuing a wild boar, was unfortunately slain by a dart which one of his companions had hurled at the beast. The accidental murderer was Adrastus, a Phrygian prince, who, being compelled to quit his native land, had been hospitably entertained at the Lydian court; to his protection that morning Cræsus had consigned his darling Atys. How bitter must have been his feelings when he returned with the dead body to Sardis! When they approached the royal presence, Adrastus stepped forward, and entreated Cræsus to put him to death. The accidental homicide of his brother had already made him an exile from Phrygia; and now that he had slain the son of his benefactor, he declared that life was an intolerable burden. Cræsus was just even in his excessive grief; he replied, "Stranger, your action is blameless, being committed without design; I know that my son was destined to a premature death." Adrastus, though pardoned by Cræsus, could not pardon himself. When the mourners were removed, he privately returned, and perished by his own hand on the tomb of Atys.

The success of Cyrus in Armenia, a province situated so near the Lydian dominions, naturally alarmed Cræsus, and determined him to resist the encroachments of a power which threatened the permanence of his own. Before
B.C. taking any decisive steps, Cræsus consulted the
549. most celebrated oracles, especially that of Delphi; and to conciliate the god, sent over presents surpassing in richness and beauty any offerings that had been hitherto made at that shrine. In return, the oracle gave him the equivocal response, that "If he passed the river Halys, (which separated the Lydian dominions from Eastern Asia,) he would overthrow a great empire;" and at the same time advised him to court the alliance of the principal Grecian states.

B.C. In pursuance of this advice, Cræsus entered into
548. a close alliance with Sparta; but without waiting

for the arrival of his Grecian auxiliaries, he crossed the Halys with a large body of mercenaries, and began to devastate Cappadocia. Cyrus no sooner heard of this invasion, than he proceeded with the utmost rapidity to meet the invaders, and arrived, from the shores of the Caspian, at those of the Euxine sea, before Cræsus had learned the commencement of his journey. An indecisive engagement, which lasted an entire day, was fought; and Cræsus, convinced too late that his enemies were more powerful than he had expected, returned to his own country, resolving to renew the war with additional forces the following year.

Scarcely, however, had the Lydian mercenaries been dismissed, when Cyrus resolved, by one decisive blow, to finish the campaign. So rapid were his movements, that he brought the first account of his own arrival in the plains of Sardis. Though the mercenaries were dismissed, the Lydians, enthusiastically attached to their monarch, assembled a numerous force, and prepared to meet the Persians. The Lydian cavalry, armed with long lances, were the most numerous and formidable portion of the troops of Cræsus. In this species of force the Persians were deficient, having only a few squadrons of Median horse. This suggested a useful stratagem to Harpagus, a Mede in the service of Cyrus. Having observed that horses have a strong aversion to the smell of camels, he placed a body of these animals, which the Persians had brought as beasts of burden, in the front line; at some distance behind were the Persian infantry in open column, while the Median cavalry were drawn up in the rear. As the Lydian squadrons advanced to the charge, Harpagus ordered the camels to meet them. The manœuvre was decisive; the horses became terrified and unmanageable, and the strength of the Lydian army fell into irretrievable confusion. The battle was not, however, yet won; the Lydians dismounted, and attempted to renew the battle on foot; but, *unused to this novel mode of fighting*, they were unable to meet

the disciplined infantry of Persia, and after a resistance as heroic as it was unavailing, Cyrus remained the undisputed master of the field.

Still Cræsus had grounds for hope; the strength of Sardis might have enabled him to sustain a siege until the arrival of his auxiliaries, and the winter must, at all events, have compelled the Persians to retire; but an unexpected circumstance caused the capture of Sardis on the twentieth day of the siege. Part of the walls being built on the summit of a rock which was deemed inaccessible, were left almost without a guard. Accident revealed to one of the Medes* that this rock might be scaled; he set an example, which was soon followed by several others. The garrison of Sardis was surprised, the citadel stormed, and the rich capital of Lower Asia subjected to the † vengeful rapacity of an indignant victor.

Cræsus, loaded with chains, was dragged before Cyrus, and sentenced to be burned alive. On the fatal pile he remembered his former conversation with Solon, and called out his name aloud. Cyrus, who stood by to view the cruel spectacle, asked, by an interpreter, "Who was the person that Cræsus thus invoked?" Cræsus replied, "One whose words should sink deep into the breasts of kings." This led to an explanation, and Cyrus was so struck with the impressive morality of Solon's replies, that he ordered Cræsus to be set at liberty; a kindness which Cræsus afterwards repaid by the most devoted attachment to Cyrus and his family.

* His name was Hyreades; he was a native of the mountainous province of Mardia, and had been accustomed to climbing from his youth. He found out that the rock was scaleable by seeing a Lydian soldier, who had dropped his helmet, descend and recover it.

† During the storm, a son of Cræsus, who had been dumb from his birth, seeing a Persian soldier about to kill his father, is said to have burst the strings of his tongue by a powerful effort of filial affection, and to have exclaimed, "Soldier, spare the king!"

Immediately after his liberation, Cræsus sent his fetters as an appropriate offering to the Delphic god, by whose oracles he had been so much misled. The Pythian priestess declared, in reply to this rebuke, that "the gods themselves were subject to destiny; the misfortunes of Cræsus are an atonement for the crime of his ancestor, Gyges; his piety delayed these misfortunes for three years; and the oracle, if rightly understood, portended the destruction of the Lydian, and not the Persian empire." Cræsus heard the report brought him by his messengers, and acknowledged the justice of the Delphian oracle*, which maintained and increased the lustre of its former fame.

Cræsus survived Cyrus, but historians have not recorded the manner of his death †.

CHAPTER XII.

GRECIAN POETRY.

High on the first, the mighty Homer shone;
Eternal adamant composed his throne;
Father of verse!

POPE.

EPIC POETRY.

THE profession of the bards appears to have been equally sacred in ancient Greece and in ancient Britain. They united the characters of poets, prophets, and historians,

* At least Herodotus says so; but it must be remarked, that Cræsus never consulted oracles afterwards.

† Herodotus adds the following improbable circumstances: he says that before Cyrus pronounced the words of pardon, the pile had been already kindled; but that Cræsus, having prayed to Apollo, whose devoted worshipper he had ever been, a shower of rain was sent, which extinguished the flames, and enabled him to take advantage of the mercy of Cyrus.

and spent their lives travelling in search of materials for their rhapsodies, repaying the hospitality with which they were every where received, by celebrating the character of their host in adulatory strains. The transition from strolling minstrels to regular poets must have been slow : probably those who were most distinguished for their merits had scholars anxious to learn their verses, and earn a livelihood by their recitations. The profits derived from such instruction would probably enable the bard to give up a wandering life, and thus afford him an opportunity of correcting and improving his compositions.

Epic poetry is so nearly allied to history, that it is no extravagant theory to suppose that it originated from the early chronicles in verse. The labours and genius of Linus Orpheus and Musæus had probably completed the separation between poetry and history before the appearance of Homer. That there were several poets earlier than the Mæonian bard, we learn from his own writings ; indeed common sense would shew that poetry could not at once have arrived at perfection, or come into existence, like Minerva, from the brain of Jupiter, with all the vigour of youth and all the wisdom of age ; but of the poets who preceded Homer we know nothing but the names, and of himself, separate from his works, we know little more.

B. C. It appears from Homer's own writings, that he 907. lived two or three generations after the Trojan war, for he speaks of it as an event of which " he had only heard the report," and asserts that " men had degenerated since that period." That he was not much later than the era assigned, appears from his speaking of " the descendants of Æneas as reigning in Phrygia," but we know from other quarters that all Phrygia was, in the course of two centuries after the return of the Heracleidæ, colonized by Greeks ; and his accounting for " the disappearance of the Grecian wall" shews that he lived so near the *time of the siege* as to be necessitated to introduce super-

sages remarkable for energy or spirit. The battle between the Gods and Titans, in the *Theogony*, is so far superior to Hesiod's usual style, that many have supposed it not to have been his composition. The following spirited version of the appearance of Jupiter is taken from the translation published by Mr. Elton, a translation which combines more accuracy with interest than any other in our language.

Nor longer, then, did Jove
Curb down his force ; but sudden in his soul
There grew dilated strength, and it was fill'd
With his omnipotence : his whole of might
Broke from him, and the Godhead rush'd abroad.
The vaulted sky, the mount Olympus flash'd
With his continual presence ; for he pass'd
Incessant forth, and lighten'd where he trod.

Hesiod was a shepherd in his youth, lost his property early by the perfidy of his brother Pierus, and was first brought into notice by obtaining a tripod for his verses, at games instituted by Amphidamas, the King of Eubæa. His death is said to have been caused by assassination ; and the murderers who had thrown his body into the sea, are said to have been found out in consequence of the poet's corpse having been brought to shore by dolphins.

ELEGIAC AND PASTORAL POETS.

The Elegiac verse differs in structure from the epic, because the lines in it are alternately Hexameter and Pentameter, but in epic poetry are uniformly Hexameter. The inventor of this style is unknown, but it appears to have been a favourite among the Greeks, from the number of persons whose names have been recorded as elegiac writers. The most interesting of the few fragments that have been preserved are those by which Tyrtæus roused the drooping

Pastoral poetry appears usually to have existed in every nation at the commencement of the age of its refinement, because to feel the beauties of the country and to understand the sweet purity of its pleasures, there must have been an opportunity of contrasting them with the luxuries

B. C. of a town and the pomp of a court. Theocritus, 300. Bion, and Moschus, the principal Greek writers of Idyllia or pastoral poems were nearly contemporaries, and appear to have been favorites at the Egyptian and Syracusan courts. The following specimen is taken from Bion's Idyl on the death of Adonis*.

“ For thee, lov'd youth, these copious tears I shed,
And all the Cupids mourn Adonis dead.
Methinks I see him on the mountain lie,
The boar's keen tusk has pierc'd his tender thigh ;
Welt'ring he lies, expiring on the ground,
And near him Venus all in sorrow drown'd.
I see the crimson blood fast trickling flow
Down his white skin that vies with winter snow,
I see the lustre of his eyes decay,
And on his lips the roses fade away.”

BLAND.

LYRIC POETS.

From 650 B. C. to 550 B. C. Alcman appears to have been one of the earliest Grecian lyrists, he wrote in the Doric dialect, and the specimens of his works that have been preserved by chance quotations in other authors, do not enable us to form any just conception of his merits or his defects.

Anacreon, the poet of love and wine, was born in the island of Teos, his verses seem a transcript of his life, both replete with refined but vicious indulgence ; he flou-

* Adonis was a native of Cyprus, and was so beautiful that Venus fell in love with him ; but he preferred the pleasures of the chase to the charms of the goddess and resisted all her solicitations. At length he was mortally wounded by a boar, and the goddess instituted an annual festival for the lamentation of his death.

rished 552 B.C. and is said to have died in consequence of a grape-stone sticking in his throat during a fit of intemperance; the following translation of a passage in one of his odes will convey a very good idea of his style to the English reader.

“ The black earth drinks the falling rain
Trees drink the moisten'd earth again ;
Ocean drinks the mountain gales,
Ocean's self the sun exhales;
And the sun's bright rays as soon
Are swallow'd by the thirsty moon—
All nature drinks—if I should sip,
Why dash the cordial from my lip ?”

BLAND'S ANTHOLOGY.

Sappho was a poetess of uncommon power, nearly contemporary with Anacreon; she was not very remarkable for her moral qualifications, and her life was terminated by her precipitating herself from the summit of Mount Leucate into the sea, in consequence of her unrequited attachment to her countryman Phaon of Lesbos. She wrote nine books of poetry, but two fragments alone remain—a translation of one of these is subjoined.

“ Blest as the immortal gods is he
The youth who fondly sits by thee,
And hears and sees thee all the while
Softly speak and sweetly smile.
“ 'Twas this depriv'd my soul of rest,
And rais'd such tumults in my breast;
For while I gaz'd in transport tost,
My breath was gone, my voice was lost.
“ My bosom glow'd ; the subtle flame
Ran quick through all my vital frame ;
O'er my dim eyes a darkness hung,
My ears with hollow murmurs rung.
“ In dewy damps my limbs were chill'd,
My blood with gentle horrors thrill'd,
My feeble pulse forgot to play
I fainted, sunk, and died away.”

PHILLIPS.

Stersichorus, a Sicilian, flourished about the same time with the preceding; the fragments of his works that remain are neither numerous nor interesting.

Alcæus of Lesbos, and Archilochus of Paros, were lyrists nearly of the same age with the preceding; a few fragments of their works remain, but their value as poets now depends principally on their having been the models which the Latin poet Horace adopted. Alcæus was remarkable for cowardice, and Archilochus for the bitter severity of his satirical odes: he had courted Nebule, the daughter of Lycambes; the father of his mistress preferred a wealthier suitor; the enraged Archilochus attacked Lycambes with such power and bitterness of sarcasm that he hanged himself in despair. Archilochus is said to have been assassinated by one of the objects of his satire.

B.C. Ibycus was a lyric poet of Rhegium; the only remarkable circumstance respecting him that has reached posterity is the manner of his death. He was murdered by robbers, and at the moment of his death implored the assistance of some cranes that flew over his head. Some time after this, as the murderers were in the market-place of Rhegium, one of them said to his companion "the witnesses of Ibycus are present." These words and the recent death of Ibycus raised suspicion in the minds of the people; the murderers were arrested, and being examined by torture, confessed their guilt.

Simonides was a native of Cos, an island in the Ægean sea, he is said to have enlarged the Greek alphabet by the addition of the long vowels η , ω , and the double letters ξ , ψ . He was a great favorite of the Pisistratidæ while they ruled Athens, and of the Grecian princes who reigned at Syracuse. The fragments of his works that still remain shew him to have been a great master of the pathetic, and their exquisite beauty leads us to regret that the greater part is irrecoverably lost. The subjoined specimen describes the

feelings of Danaë when she and the infant Perseus were exposed in an open boat by Acusius.

“ When the wind resounding high
Bluster’d from the northern sky,
When the waves in stronger tide
Dash’d against the vessel’s side,
Her care-worn cheeks with tears bedew’d
Her sleeping infant Danaë view’d,
And trembling still with new alarms
Around him cast a mother’s arms.

“ My child what woes does Danaë weep ;
But thy young limbs are wrapp’d in sleep ;
In that poor nook all sad and dark
Where lightnings play around our bark,
Thy quiet bosom only knows
The heavy sigh of deep repose.
The howling wind, the raging sea
No terrors can excite in thee,
The angry surges wake no care
That burst above thy long deep hair—
But couldst thou feel what I deplore
Then would I bid thee sleep the more.
Sleep on sweet boy, still be the deep ;
Oh ! could I lull my woes to sleep !
Jove, let thy mighty hand o’erthrow
The baffled malice of my foe,
And may this child in future years
Avenge his mother’s woes and tears.”

GREEK ANTHOLOGY.

Pindar was born at Thebes in Bæotia, and furnished a decisive contradiction to the calumnious assertion, that the inhabitants of that country were naturally stupid. He was educated by the beautiful Corinna, who was herself a lyric writer of no common order, and at a very early age became the admiration of all Greece. As the subject of his verses was the victories obtained at the public games of Greece, his acquaintance was courted by all the statesmen and princes of the time. His poems were recited before the most crowded assemblies in the dif-

ferent Grecian assemblies, and the priestess at Delphi declared it to be the will of Apollo that Pindar should receive one half of the offerings annually made in his temples. The greater part of Pindar's poems have been lost, and a translation would not convey to the English reader any idea of his peculiar style. Gray's imitation of the Address to Poetry, in the commencement of the Ode to Hiero, here subjoined, comes nearer to the original than any other passage in English literature.

“ Oh sovereign of the willing soul,
 Parent of sweet and solemn-breathing airs,
 Enchanting shell ! the sullen cares
 And frantic passions bear thy soft controul.
 On Thracia's hills the lord of war
 Has curb'd the fury of his car,
 And dropp'd his thirsty lance at thy command.
 Perching on the sceptred hand
 Of Jove, thy magic lulls the feather'd king,
 With muffled plumes and flagging wing :
 Quench'd in dark clouds of slumber lie
 The terrors of his beak and lightning of his eye.”

PROGRESS OF POESY.

Bacchylides was the nephew of Simonides, and like his uncle is only known to posterity by a few fragments ; the following is a translation of his description of peace :

“ For thee sweet peace abundance leads along,
 Her jovial train and bards awake to song,
 On many an altar at thy glad return
 Pure victims bleed, and holy odors burn,
 And frolic youth their happy age apply
 To graceful movements, sports and minstrelsy ;
 Dark spiders weave their webs within the shield,
 Rust eats the spear, the terror of the field
 And brazen trumpets now no more affright
 The silent slumber and repose of night.
 Banquet and song and revel fill the ways,
 And merry maidens sing their roundelays.”

BLAND.

DRAMATIC WRITERS.

Some species of dramatic exhibition seems to have formed the principal delight of the Greeks from the earliest ages. It was always an essential part of their religious ceremonies, and though rude and licentious in their origin, arrived at a pitch of excellence which subsequent ages have not been able to surpass. Thespis appears to have been the founder of the regular drama, and though his theatre was an open field and a cart his stage, the popularity of his performances baffled every attempt of Solon to suppress them. The rude strains of Thespis were followed by the noble productions of Æschylus, the most sublime of tragic writers; he first introduced two actors on the stage, and connected the Chorus, whom he limited to fifteen, with the performance of some definite piece. The Greek tragedies differ from those of the present day principally in the Chorus, which was a number of performers who both sung and danced in solemn measures, and formed a kind of link between the spectators and the performers by the observations which they made on the action of the piece. Another difference was that the ancient dramatists strictly observed the unity of place, and did not change the scene during the play. Æschylus was a brave soldier, and served his country at the battles of Marathon, Salamis, and Platæa. He subsequently directed his attention to the stage, and produced ninety tragedies, of which forty were honoured with the public prize. A few expressions of impious tendency in his plays had nearly proved fatal to him; he was on the point of being condemned to death by the Athenian people, when his brother Amynias uncovered the arm of which the hand had been cut off at Salamis, and claimed the acquittal of Æschylus as his reward. After this the poet retired to the court of Hiero, king of Syracuse, by whom he was honour-

B.C. ably entertained. The account given of his death 456. is very strange ; it is said that having become very bald in his old age, an eagle with a tortoise in her mouth flying over him, mistook his head for a stone, and dropping her prey on it, to break the shell, killed the poet on the spot. Only seven tragedies of Æschylus have come down to us, they bear all the marks of a powerful and lofty mind, but they particularly excel in the terrible, and even now can scarcely be read without a shudder. A brief account of one play, the Agamemnon, will serve to give the reader some idea of the nature of Æschylus's tragedies.

In the commencement of the play we find a watchman stationed in Mycenæ to give notice of the first appearance of the beacon-light which should announce the downfall of Troy : Clytemnestra, fearing to be surprised with her paramour, having provided signal stations along the eastern coast of Greece to announce the approach of her husband. The beacon is seen in the distance, Clytemnestra rushes on the stage, and receives the congratulations of the Chorus, composed of Argive old men. The Chorus enumerate all the evils of this tedious war, and soon after Talthybius comes in and details the circumstances that attended the fall of Troy, at the same time announcing the near approach of Agamemnon. That hero then enters in triumph, accompanied by the Trojan princess, the prophetic Cassandra, Clytemnestra rushes to meet him, and her exaggerated expressions of joy make her sincerity suspicious. Agamemnon and Clytemnestra retire, and the Chorus breaks out into dark forebodings of future calamity. Clytemnestra returns to solicit the presence of Cassandra, but the Trojan princess listens in silence, and Clytemnestra leaves the stage. Immediately after Cassandra is seized with a fit of prophetic fury, she denounces future woe in awful terms, enumerates the many crimes of the Pelopid race, her prophecies become more distinct as she proceeds, and she at length in direct terms announces the approach-

ing assassination of Agamemnon, the murder of herself, and the terrible vengeance that should be taken on the murderers by Orestes. She then rushes into the house, the groans of Agamemnon as he falls beneath the daggers of the assassins are heard, and the Chorus are filled with dismay. The dead bodies are next discovered, and Clytemnestra vindicates the crime she had committed by referring to the conduct of Agamemnon towards their mutual daughter, Iphigenia. Ægisthus takes higher ground, and proclaims himself the avenger of the wrongs that his father Thyestes had endured, and the play concludes with the reproaches of the Chorus to the guilty pair. The following extracts from Symmons's translation of Cassandra's prophecy will enable the merely English reader to form some conception of the style of Æschylus :

Apollo! Apollo!

Aguieus*, my Apollo.

Ha! where hast thou brought me?

Where am I come? what roofed mansion's this?

* * * * *

Ha! Ha! that dismal and abhorred house,

The good Gods hate its dark and conscious walls!

It knows of kinsmen by their kinsmen slain,

And many a horrid death-note swung!

A house where men like beasts are slain!

The floor is all in blood!

* * * * *

Ha! Ha! Alas! Alas! what's that?

Is that Hell's drag-net that I see?

Drag-net! or woman? she the very she

Who slept beside thee in the midnight bower,

Wife and murd'ress! How! dark choirs!

How! in trembled anthems dark,

For Atreus' deadly line,

And the stony shower of blood.

* * * * *

* An epithet of Apollo, which signifies *presiding over the streets of cities*.

The Masque of Sisters * ! The Erinnyes drear !
 They are all seated in the rooms above,
 Chanting how Atè † came into the house
 In the beginning : gloomily they look !
 Each sings the lay in catches round, each has
 Foam on her lips and gnashes grim her teeth,
 Where heavily the incestuous brother sleeps,
 Stretch'd in pale slumber on the haunted bed,
 Ha ! do the shafts fly upright at the mark ?
 Fly the shafts right, or has the yew-bow miss'd ?
 Methinks the wild beast in the covert's hit !
 Or rave I dreaming of poetic lies,
 Like some poor minstrel knocking at the door ?
 Come bear thou witness, out with it on oath,
 That I know well the old sins of this house.

* * * * *

Once more, once more, oh let my voice be heard !
 I love to sing the dirges of the dead,
 My own death-knell, myself my death-knell ring !
 The sun rides high, but soon will set for me ;
 O sun, I pray to thee by thy last light,
 Upon my hateful murderers wreak the blood
 Of the poor slave they murder in her chains,
 A helpless, easy, unresisting victim ;
 O mortal, mortal state ! and what art thou ?
 E'en in thy glory comes the changing shade,
 And makes thee like a vision glide away !
 And then misfortune takes the moisten'd sponge
 And clean effaces all the picture out !

[*Rushes into the house.*]

Sophocles, like his master Æschylus, was distinguished as a soldier and a statesman, his first tragedy gained the prize from several competitors, one of whom was Æschylus. After this a rivalry existed between the two writers, which soon degenerated into envy and faction : and the contests between Sophocles and Euripides soon after bore the same character. Sophocles wrote more than a hundred trage-

* This phrase is designed to convey a picture of the three Furies *revelling* in the contemplation of slaughter.

† The goddess of discord.

dies, twenty of which were honoured with the prize. Of these only seven have reached our times ; they all are distinguished by plaintive simplicity and affecting pathos. In his old age, his children accused him of madness in order to obtain possession of his fortune ; Sophocles in reply read part of his tragedy *Œdipus Coloneus*, which he had lately finished, and asked was that like the production of a madman ? The judges at once decided in his favour, and the ungrateful children left the court overwhelmed with disgrace. Sophocles died in his 91st year, B.C. from excessive joy, from having obtained a poetical prize at the Olympic games. 406.

The *Œdipus Tyrannus* of Sophocles has had the singular good fortune of being praised by every critic, ancient and modern ; and this pre-eminence it in some measure owes to the confidence in his genius, which Sophocles manifested, by bringing the catastrophe before the spectators or readers in the very beginning of the play. This sacrifice of all the interest arising from expectation would in most cases have been damnatory of the piece, but here the genius of Sophocles triumphs ; the story of *Œdipus* was so well known and so hackneyed by the Athenian tragedians, that it would have been impossible to suppose an audience ignorant of the event. The artifice of Sophocles is to let the spectator into the whole secret at once, and having created an interest in favour of *Œdipus* to deal out the fatal secret drop by drop, until the cup of horror is full to the brim. The story of *Œdipus* has been already detailed, and to enter on an analysis of the play would be merely to repeat it : we shall therefore only quote the passage in the beginning of the play, where the prophet *Tiresias* distinctly announces the catastrophe :

I tell thee, King, this blind *Tiresias* tells thee,
Soon shall their furies drive thee from the land,
And leave thee dark like me ; what mountain then,
Or conscious shore shall not return the groans

Of *Œdipus*, and echo to his woes ?
 When thou shalt look on the detested bed,
 And in that haven where thou hop'st to rest
 Shalt meet with storm and tempest ; then what ills
 Shall fall on thee and thine ?—now vent thy rage
 On old *Tiresias* and the guiltless *Creon* ;
 We soon shall be aveng'd, for ne'er did heav'n
 Cut off a wretch so base, so vile as thou art.

FRANKLIN.

Sophocles is generally allowed to have surpassed other writers of tragedy in the beauty of his choral ode the following is the address of the chorus to *Œdipus*, when he comes to *Colonus*, in *Attica*, as an exile :

Stranger thy favour'd feet have found
 The loveliest spot of *Attic* ground,
 For beauteous steeds afar renown'd ;
 Columns sparkling free and bright
 Beneath the pure unclouded light ;
 Where, trilling slow her plaintive tale,
 The clear melodious nightingale
 Pours sweetest music through the vale.
 Amid the ivy shade she pines,
 And moans among the purple vines ;
 No tempest wild, no sunbeam fierce,
 The impervious foliage e'en can pierce ;
 The holy haunt, where *Bacchus* showers
 A thousand fruits, a thousand flowers,
 And binding with their wreaths his tresses,
 The nymphs who rear'd his youth caresses.

* * * * *

Another source of admiration,
 The mighty theme of deathless story,
Athena's proudest, brightest glory,
 Inspires the song of gratulation :
 Unmatch'd our winged vessels sail ;
 Unmatch'd our steeds outvie the gale.
 O son of *Saturn* ! through thy might
 We gained this proud and glorious height.
 Here first by thee to bondage broke,
 The fiery steed receiv'd the yoke

With humbled spirit ; here through thee,
O great and fearful prodigy !
High o'er the wave the bounding oar,
Regardless of the billows' roar,
Danced to the tuneful shell, the Nereids' lyre,
Who hymn'd the deed sublime in full symphonious choir.

Euripides was induced to write tragedy by the great fame which Sophocles had acquired in that department of literature, and the rivalry between these poets exposed them to the lash of the bitter satyrist, Aristophanes. Euripides wrote seventy-five tragedies, of which nineteen remain ; his writings want the sublimity of Æschylus, and the tender pathos of Sophocles ; but he displays a greater knowledge of the human mind, and a more philosophical conception of the passions. He was unfortunate in his wives, having married two, and being compelled to divorce both ; hence, probably, arose that hostility to the female character by which his writings are most remarkably distinguished, and which procured him the unenviable name *Misogynes*, or woman-hater. The ridicule of Aristophanes, and the envy of his competitors, compelled him to B.C. retire to Macedonia, where he was torn to pieces 407. by dogs, in the 78th year of his age. The noblest compliment ever paid to the compositions of any poet, was conferred on the verses of Euripides by the Sicilians. After the fatal defeat at Syracuse, those Athenians who could repeat any portions of Euripides' tragedies were liberated from slavery, and permitted to return home.

There is scarcely any author, the relative merit of whose compositions has been so frequently contested. It is but rarely that we meet with two persons who would give the same answer to the question, "Which is your favourite tragedy of Euripides?" Under these circumstances, the selection of the *Alcestis* for an example of his works, one of the least known, will easily be pardoned.

When Apollo was banished from heaven, he was hospitably entertained by Admetus, king of Thessaly. In

gratitude for this, when Admetus lay sick of a mortal disease, Apollo entreated the Gods to spare his life; the request was granted, on condition that he should find a near relative ready to die in his stead, and Alcestis, the wife of Admetus, willingly accepts the offer. The play opens with an interview between Apollo and Death in the hall of king Admetus; Death claims his prey, and Apollo acknowledges the justice of his claim. Alcestis is then introduced, taking leave of her husband and family, whom she thus tenderly addresses :

I die without reluctance, though the gifts
Of youth are mine to make life grateful to me.
Yet he that gave thee birth, and she that bore thee,
Rejected thee, though well it had be seem'd them
With honour to have died for thee, to have saved
Their son with honour, glorious in their deaths.
• • • • • Yet my request
Is just thou wilt confess it; for thy love
To these our children equals mine, thy soul
If wisdom tempers : in their mother's house
Let them be lords ; wed not again, nor set
A step-dame o'er my children, some vile woman
That wants my virtues ; she through jealousy
Will work against their lives, because to thee
I bore them ; do not this, I beg thee, do not.
• • • • • Farewell ! be happy !
Thou hast been wedded to a virtuous wife ;
And you, my children, glory in your mother.

The chorus are filled with admiration of her heroism, and address her in strains of high compliment :

Immortal bliss be thine,
Daughter of Pelias ! in the realms below,
Immortal pleasures round thee flow,
Though never there the sun's bright beams shall shine.
Be the black-brow'd Pluto told,
And the Stygian boatman old,
Whose rude hands grasp the oar, the rudder guide,
The dead conveying o'er the tide ;

Let him be told, so rich a freight before
His light skiff never bore ;
Tell him that o'er the joyless lakes
The noblest of her sex her dreary passage takes.

The departure of Alcestis to the infernal is followed by the arrival of Hercules, who was setting out on one of his labours. Notwithstanding his grief, Admetus receives the hero with hospitality ; and Hercules, in requital, pursues Death, conquers the King of Terrors, and restores Alcestis to the arms of her husband.

Athenian comedy is usually divided into three kinds ; the *old*, *middle*, and *new*. In the old comedy, living persons were introduced on the stage by their real names ; in the middle, the names were disguised ; in the new, both the names and the characters were fictitious. Of all the dramatic writers who delighted the Athenians, only one is known to us, Aristophanes, the greatest and most powerful satyrist that ever existed. His works are generally severe personal attacks, disguised under a thin allegorical veil, on the most conspicuous characters of the day ; his ridicule is generally coarse and unsparing ; his wit frequently gross and licentious ; still there is a fervour and vigour in his satire, which seems to be the result of honest and virtuous indignation, roused by the contemplation of vice and hypocrisy. His attack on Socrates in the play of the Clouds is generally known, and even the warmest partizans of the philosopher confess the unquestionable merits of the poet ; but the comedy of the Knights, in which Aristophanes assails Cleon, then the idol of the Athenian mob, will give a better notion of the liberty allowed to the old poets than any other. It is necessary to premise, B.C. 425. that Cleon was then in the very zenith of his popularity, having just returned from the successful expedition mentioned in Pinnock's Greece, page 171 ; and such was his power, that no actor could be got to perform

the character, which was supported by Aristophanes himself.

In this extraordinary piece, the people of Athens are described under the character of an old dotard, whose credulity, abused by a malicious new-bought slave, persecutes and torments his faithful servants. Demosthenes bitterly complains, that, intending to gratify the old man, he had brought a delicate morsel from * Pylos, which Cleon had stolen and served up as his own. Nicias joins in these lamentations, and heroically proposes that they should terminate their misery by drinking a poisonous draught of bull's blood; Demosthenes, as an amendment, suggests a cup of wine. Finding Cleon asleep, they not only purloin the liquor, but obtain from his pockets some oracles, typically representing the succession of the Athenian magistrates. In these it is declared that the dragon should overcome the vulture. The vulture is easily shewn to be a type of Cleon, and the dragon is discovered to mean Agoracritus, an eminent sausage-maker. Nicias and Demosthenes had this favourite of fortune as the future master of the republic. He alleges in vain his ignorance and incapacity; they reply that he is therefore the more likely to please the people of Athens, to whom, at this time, insufficiency was a recommendation.

Sausage-seller. I am, as all my fathers were, a blackguard.

Demosthenes. Then thou art blest; Fortune hath stamp'd and mark'd thee
For state affairs—

Saus.-sel. Nay, I want skill in music,
And am the veriest dabster e'en at letters.

Dem. Better you wanted that small skill you boast of,
'Tis all that makes 'gainst thy sufficiencies.

* The present harbour of Navarino; in front of it is the island of Sphacteria, which Cleon had conquered. It had been besieged by Demosthenes, and to him the honour of its subjugation was really owing.

Music and letters—tut ! we want no gifts
 Like these in men who rule us.—Morals, quotha !
 A dolt, a knave ; these are the stuff we make
 Our statesmen of.

The production of the oracles, and the promised aid of the whole body of the Athenian knights, or aristocracy, overcomes the modesty of Agoracritus, and he promises to meet the foe. The first attack of the knights on Cleon is very vigorous.

Stripes and torment, whips and scourges, for the toll-collecting knave ;
 Knighthood wounded, troops confounded, chastisement and vengeance
 crave ;

Taxes sinking, tribute shrinking, mark his appetite for plunder ;
 At his crawl and ravening maw, dykes and whirlpools fail for wonder !
 Explanation and evasion, covert art and close deceit ;
 Fraudful funning, force and cunning ; who with him in these compete ?
 He can cheat and eke repeat twenty times his felon feat,
 All before yon blessed sun has quench'd his lamp of glowing heat.
 Then to him, pursue him ; strike, shiver, and hew him ;
 Confound him and pound him, and storm all around him.

Cleon is overwhelmed by this unexpected attack, and endeavours to justify himself. The next interruption of the chorus is still more powerful.

Wretch without a parallel !
 Son of thunder, child of hell !
 Creature of one mighty sense,
 Concentrated impudence !
 From earth's centre to the sea,
 Nature stinks of that and thee.

Agoracritus now encounters Cleon ; the contest is maintained in a style of rich humour, but bordering too much on vulgar buffoonery, ludicrous throughout, but sometimes gross and indecent. In the end, Demus, the representative of the Athenians, acknowledges his errors, and regrets that he had been so long deceived by an upstart slave, who had confined him so long in the unwholesome city, *and prevented him from enjoying rural amusements.* Ago-

racritus then produces two ancient treaties with the Lacedemonians, personified by two beautiful women whom he had found closely immured in the house of Cleon. The old gentleman becomes delighted with such lovely acquaintances, and retires with them into the country.

The effect of this extraordinary production is not the least striking part of its history, since it shews the strange inconsistency of the Athenian republicans. They applauded with enthusiasm the satire of Aristophanes, and trusted Cleon more than ever.

The licentious severity of the Old comedy was at length checked by law, and a new species of dramatic composition, called in later times the Middle comedy, succeeded. Of this, the *Birds* of Aristophanes may be considered as an example; the satire in this amusing composition is levelled at classes of individuals instead of persons. It is, in fact, an attack on the constitution and customs of Athens, but the names of the characters are fictitious. To this succeeded the New comedy, similar in most respects to the comedy of the present day. The most celebrated writer in this style was Menander, of whom nothing but a few fragments remain. He is principally remarkable for the number of moral sentiments that were interspersed through his works; one of which is quoted by St. Paul, "Evil communications corrupt good manners." Most of the Latin comedies of Terence, and some of Plautus, are imitations of Menander.

PART II.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY OF THE CARTHAGINIANS.

Then exil'd crowds abjure their native home,
And sad in search of foreign mansions roam ;
A youthful princess guides the wand'ring clan,
And holds the proud prerogative of man.

BROOKES.

1. ABOUT the beginning of the ninth century before the birth of Christ, a colony of Tyrians, whom the tyranny of Pygmalion had forced to fly from their country, under the command of Queen Dido, traversed the greater part of the Mediterranean, and finally settled on the north coast of Africa, in the western division of the Great Sea. Having purchased some ground from the princes of the country, they built the city Carthage, and retaining the commercial activity and spirit of trade which had distinguished the parent state, they soon made it a place of considerable importance.

2. At first they were compelled to pay tribute to the neighbouring princes, but as they acquired riches and strength they soon shook off this degrading mark of servitude, and extended their dominion along the northern and western coasts of Africa. 3. The Cyrenians, a Greek colony, who had settled on the more eastern shores of the north of Africa, and had like the Carthaginians grown *opulent and powerful* by extensive commerce, soon be-

came jealous of their encroaching neighbours, and a tedious war ensued. 4. After long and protracted hostilities the rival states became wearied of a contest, and peace was concluded, on the condition that the place where ambassadors setting out from both cities on the same day should meet, might for the future be the mutual boundary of their respective dominions. 5. Two brothers, named Philæni, were sent on this expedition by the Carthaginians, who being either more active or more patriotic than the Cyrenian deputies, considerably exceeded the point midway between the two states, before they met with the Cyrenians. 6. Some altercation took place in consequence, and at length the Greeks proposed that the ambassadors of Carthage should be buried alive, at the place where they had placed the partition line of the two states, or that they themselves would choose out new limits, and there submit to a similar fate. The Philæni accepted the offer, and were accordingly interred on the spot, which in memory of the transaction was afterwards called the *altaris Philæni*.

7. So early as the reign of Cambyses the Carthaginians had acquired so much wealth and importance, that the monarch meditated an expedition against them; but the Phœnician mariners, by whom his fleet was principally manned, refused to bear arms against their relatives, and consequently the design was laid aside. 8. Tyre and Carthage, indeed, always preserved the strictest amity, and frequently afforded each other mutual assistance. A ship laden with rich sacrifices to the Tyrian Hercules, was annually sent from Carthage; and when Alexander was advancing to besiege Tyre, the aged inhabitants, the women and the children, were sent to Carthage, where, although they arrived at a period of great distress, they were received with the utmost kindness and hospitality.

9. The year in which the Tarquins were expelled from Rome, was also rendered remarkable by a treaty con-

cluded between these two republics, whose future wars were afterwards to form so conspicuous a portion of history. 10. From the terms of this treaty it appears that the Carthaginians were at that time supreme masters of the north of Africa, and in possession of Sardinia, and part of Sicily. They had besides colonized the Balearic isles, and erected a town on that excellent harbour in Minorca, called from a Carthaginian general *Portus Magonis* (*Port Mahon*), and they had erected several factories and trading towns along the south and east of Spain.

11. When Xerxes had determined on the invasion of Greece, he naturally dreaded that the Greek colonies in Italy and Sicily would send assistance to the mother-country; to prevent this he entered into a close alliance with the Carthaginians, and sent them a large sum of money to assist them in attacking the colonies in Sicily, while he was invading Greece.

12. In consequence of this the Carthaginians assembled a numerous army, and sent forth an expedition whose magnitude gives us a high idea of the power and resources of Carthage. The fleet consisted of two thousand vessels of war, and three thousand ships of burden; the land army amounted to upwards of three hundred thousand men: the command of the whole was intrusted to Amilcar, the head of a family which long gave generals and magistrates to Carthage.

13. Amilcar without any loss effected a landing at Panormus (the present *Palermo*), and having refreshed his troops, advanced and laid close siege to Himera. The town was bravely defended by the governor Theron; with a small but resolute garrison he bravely sustained the attacks of the Carthaginians, and the still more appalling horrors of famine. Foreseeing, however, that the town would, unless relieved, eventually surrender, he sent to *Gelon king of Syracuse*, requesting his speedy assistance.

14. On learning the first news of the invasion, Gelon had taken up arms, but his utmost efforts could only collect about five thousand horse and fifty thousand foot.

15. With this very disproportionate force he advanced against the Carthaginians; on his road he fortunately captured a messenger from the Selinuntines to Amilcar, promising that on a particular day they would send him the cavalry he required.

16. Gelon had the letter forwarded to Amilcar, and taking measures to intercept the treacherous Selinuntines, he sent in their place a chosen body of his own troops at the specified time.

The Syracusans admitted into the Carthaginian camp suddenly made an attack on the general's tent, slew Amilcar and some of his principal officers, and then hurrying to the harbour, set fire to the fleet.

17. The cries of Amilcar's servants, the shouts of the Syracusans, and the blaze of the burning vessels threw the whole Carthaginian army into disorder; in the midst of the confusion Gelon advances with his entire army;—without leaders and without command the Carthaginians are unable to make any effective resistance, a terrible carnage ensues, one half of the invaders fall, the remainder, without arms and without provisions, are forced from their camp and compelled to seek for refuge in a hostile country, unable to make resistance, and deprived of all means of retreat.

18. It is worthy of remark that this great victory was won on the

B.C. same day that the battle of Thermopylæ was fought, 480. and the Persian fleet defeated at Artemisium; three of the greatest triumphs ever obtained by Grecian freedom.

19. Gisgon, the son of Amilcar, took the command of the Carthaginian army, and finding that it was impossible to remedy the state of disorganization to which it had been reduced by the late defeat, found himself obliged to *surrender* at discretion. Gelon granted favourable terms to his distressed adversaries, and wisely deeming that ne-

gotiations are best after victory, offered the Carthaginians honourable conditions of peace. 20. These were unwillingly accepted by the senate of Carthage, and having no other means of giving vent to their anger and disappointment, they banished Gisgon for consenting to surrender his troops.

21. While the Carthaginians were slowly recovering from the effects of this ruinous defeat, the Syracusans were engaged in a contest that at one time seemed to threaten their existence: the Athenians having invaded Sicily B. C. and laid siege to Syracuse. 22. After the disgrace- 416. ful defeat of the Athenians, the Segestans, who had joined with that people, dreading the vengeance of the Syracusans implored the assistance of Carthage. 23. Glad of such a pretext for attempting to restore their influence in Sicily, the Carthaginians hastily levied an army, fitted out a fleet, and gave the command of the expedition to Annibal the son of Gisgon.

24. Annibal on his landing laid siege to Selinuntum, which he carried by assault, thence he advanced to Himera, the scene of his grandfather's defeat and death; this town he also stormed, put all the inhabitants to the sword, and destroyed every building, public and private; the Sicilians, unable to compete with him in the field, solicited a truce, which was granted on terms extremely favorable to the interests of Carthage.

25. Annibal on his return to Carthage was received with the greatest honours, and so elated was the state at his success, that nothing less than the entire subjugation of Sicily was contemplated. 26. A new expedition was accordingly prepared, and the command of it given to Annibal, aided, on account of his great age, by Inules, the son of Hanno. 27. The invaders landed at Lilybæum, whence they marched against Agrigentum, the second city of the island.

28. During the siege, which lasted eight months, the *besiegers* were afflicted by contagious disease, and the be-

sieged by famine. The Carthaginians had destroyed several sepulchres to procure materials for their works, and supposing that the pestilence was sent as a punishment for this impiety, as an atonement sacrificed a child of noble birth to Saturn, and threw several of their prisoners into the sea as propitiatory offerings to Neptune. 29. The besieged, after enduring the extremities of famine, broke through the enemy's lines by night, and retreated to Gela, leaving the old, the sick and the wounded behind them. Imilco, who had succeeded to the chief command on the death of Annibal, ordered every person left in Agrigentum to be massacred ; which cruel edict was put into strict execution.

30. From Agrigentum Imilco marched to Gela, which B.C. was taken after a slight resistance ; Dionysius the 405. elder, king of Syracuse, who had taken the command of the Sicilian army, alarmed at the successes of Imilco, opened negotiations for peace, and a treaty was concluded which neither party intended to observe.

Questions.

1. When and by whom was Carthage founded ?
2. What part of Africa did they subject to their dominion ?
3. With what rival colony were they engaged in dispute ?
4. How did they agree to decide their contentions ?
5. Which nation had the more active deputies ?
6. How were the disputes between the ambassadors terminated ?
7. To what danger were they exposed from Cambyses ?
8. What instances are there of mutual good-will between Tyre and Carthage ?
9. When did the Romans and Carthaginians first form any connection ?
10. What appears to have been at this time the extent of the Carthaginian dominions ?
11. On what occasion did they enter into alliance with Xerxes ?
12. What forces did the Carthaginians assemble in consequence ?
13. What were the first enterprises of the Carthaginian general ?
14. Who proceeded to attack him ?
15. What fortunate discovery did Gelon make on his march ?

16. How did Gelon act on this information ?
17. What were the circumstances of the engagement ?
18. Why is the day on which this battle was fought remarkable ?
19. How did the war terminate ?
20. In what manner did the Carthaginian senate shew their indignation at this defeat.
21. What was the next war in which the Syracusans were engaged ?
22. On what pretext did the Carthaginians again invade Sicily ?
23. Who commanded the expedition ?
24. What was its success ?
25. With what hopes did this success inspire the Carthaginians ?
26. Who led the new expedition ?
27. Where did the invaders land ?
28. What circumstances occurred at the siege of Agrigentum ?
29. How did the besieged escape ?
30. By whom was peace made ?



CHAPTER II.

HISTORY OF CARTHAGE CONTINUED.

No hopes of peace remain, nor can we find
New Gods to witness, or new oaths to bind,
The first infringed, and therefore must prepare
To stand or perish by the die of war.

EPIGONIAD.

1. SCARCELY were the troops of Carthage withdrawn when Dionysius began to prepare for a renewal of the war, he sent embassies through all Sicily exhorting them to make one simultaneous and vigorous effort to expel all intruders from the island, and for ever secure the independence of the states. 2. His machinations were successful, the populace in the principal commercial towns rose up and murdered all the Carthaginian merchants, who, on the faith of treaties, had settled in the country ; while Dionysius, at the head of a numerous army marched against the Carthaginian forts, and captured several of them.

3. *Imilco* was sent with all the forces that the wealth of

Carthage could procure to chastise this treachery of the Sicilians. 4. The Sicilians, unable to meet him in the field, retreated into the fortified towns, and Imilco having captured several places of lesser importance, determined to besiege Syracuse itself. 5. The beginning of his enterprise was very successful; the harbour was blockaded by the Carthaginian fleet, the country around Syracuse laid waste, several of the outworks destroyed, and the fortified suburb Acradina captured by assault. The temples of Proserpine and Ceres in Acradina were peculiarly venerated by the Sicilians, these Imilco levelled to the ground, and employed the ruins in strengthening and fortifying his entrenchments. 6. But just as every thing seemed to promise a favourable result, a plague of uncommon virulence broke out in the Carthaginian camp: so violent and so rapid were its ravages that the living were soon unable to bury the dead, and the putrescent corpses loaded the atmosphere with fresh sources of disease and death.

7. Dionysius, in the midst of this melancholy state of affairs, made a sudden attack on Imilco's camp; there was scarce any effort made to resist him, the Carthaginians were completely defeated, and night alone saved their army from complete extirpation. 8. Imilco finding it impossible to retrieve his losses, was compelled to surrender; he stipulated only for the lives of himself and the Carthaginians leaving all his auxiliary troops at the mercy of the enraged Syracusans.

9. Imilco, on his return to Carthage, unable to bear the pangs of disappointment, and dreading the anger of his countrymen, committed suicide. Nor did the evil consequences of the defeat at Syracuse terminate here. The African nations, indignant that their countrymen had been sacrificed by Imilco to ensure the safety of the Carthaginians, with one consent took up arms to avenge their death, captured Tunis and several smaller towns, and at length advanced to the very walls of Carthage. 10. The

city would have been in great danger, but that the Africans being without a leader, fell out among themselves, and finally dispersed almost without a blow.

11. As soon as Carthage had recovered from the consequences of her late defeat, a third invasion of Sicily was resolved on, and the command of the expedition was given to Mago, a man of noble family and great experience.

12. Dionysius attacked the Carthaginians immediately after their landing, and defeated them in a severe battle, in which Mago was slain. 13. But the Syracusan monarch, instead of pursuing his victory, granted his enemies a suspension of arms; during which interval, the Carthaginian troops had time to recover from their confusion, and receive a strong reinforcement from Africa, under the command of Mago, son of their former general. 14. In a second engagement, the Syracusans were defeated, and compelled to beg for peace, which was accordingly granted on terms honourable to both parties.

15. Dionysius is generally described by the Greek historians as a * monster of cruelty; but it is more than probable that his crimes have been greatly exaggerated. 16. He was brought into public life under the auspices of Hermocrates, the Syracusan general who defeated the Athenian invasion. Though esteemed and trusted by Hermocrates,

* There are two circumstances which induced the Greek historians to blacken the character of Dionysius: first, he was an usurper, and every Grecian historian, however respectable, attacks such a character with more than republican virulence, relating not only improbable, but even impossible, stories of their crimes. Secondly, he paid very little respect to the absurdities of Paganism, plundering the temples on pretences so whimsical, that they were probably designed to shew his contempt for all the Heathen deities of Olympus. He took a golden mantle from a celebrated statue of Jupiter, alleging that such a cumbrous ornament must inconvenience the god in summer, and would not afford him any warmth in winter. For a reason equally ingenious, he deprived Æsculapius of his golden beard, asserting that such a venerable ornament ill became the son of the beardless Apollo.

who could more easily discover the extent of his abilities than the danger of his ambition, he contrived to secure friends in the opposite faction, and thus avoided sharing in the ruin by which Hermocrates and his party were overwhelmed.

17. The fame that he acquired in the wars with Carthage, and the influence over the soldiers that his liberality procured for him, enabled him to become the master of his country. 18. With equal success he humbled the Carthaginians, and quelled domestic factions in Sicily. Looking on these successes as means of future greatness, he invaded Magna Græcia, captured Rhegium, and would certainly have prevailed over the feeble confederacy of the

B.C. Italo-Grecian states, had he not been recalled by 367. new troubles in Sicily, and the threatenings of Carthage.

19. His literary talents appear to have been of no ordinary rank; for though he twice failed at the Olympic games, yet he obtained the poetic crown at Athens, a city celebrated for the impartiality of its literary decisions.

20. His skill in military affairs was proved, not merely by his numerous victories, but also by the admirable fortifications he erected at Syracuse, the improvements he effected in the shape of the Sicilian galleys, and the invention of the *catapultæ*, engines which hurled stones and enormous arrows to a considerable distance. 21. He foresaw that the character of his son Dionysius was such as would render his reign a short one. Remonstrating with him on some of his excesses, and declaring that he had passed his youth differently, the younger Dionysius replied—"But you were not the son of a king;" to which the monarch prophetically answered,—“And you will never be the father of a king.” 22. The principal proof of his tyranny was the erection of the prison * *Lantomix*, at Syracuse: one of the apartments in this is said to have been constructed

* This name signifies *cut out of stone*, from *λαας*, a stone, and *τεμνω*, to cut.

on the principle of the human ear, and to have been so contrived, that Dionysius, while sitting in his private apartments, could overhear all the conversations of his prisoners. The ruins of this strange edifice are reported to be still in existence. 23. But to the general current of satire and declamation against this extraordinary man, may be opposed the testimony of Scipio Africanus, who declared that "No one ever concerted his schemes with more prudence, or executed them with more vigour, than the elder Dionysius."

Questions.

1. By whom was the war between Carthage and Syracuse renewed?
2. How did it commence?
3. Who was sent against the Syracusans?
4. What was his success?
5. What prospects had he of reducing Syracuse?
6. How were they frustrated?
7. What advantage was taken of this calamity?
8. On what disgraceful terms did Imilco surrender?
9. To what danger was Carthage exposed in consequence?
10. How did it escape?
11. Who commanded the third expedition against Sicily?
12. How did Dionysius act?
13. What wrong step did he take after the victory?
14. What ill consequence resulted?
15. How is Dionysius described by the Greek historians?
16. In what manner was he introduced into public life?
17. By what means did he make himself master of his country?
18. What successes did he obtain?
19. How does it appear that he had literary talents?
20. What improvements did he make in the art of war?
21. What remarkable conversation had he with his son?
22. What prison did he contrive?
23. How was he described by Scipio Africanus?

CHAPTER III.

HISTORY OF CARTHAGE CONTINUED.

O son unhappy of a sire accurst,
 The plague of all and fated to the worst,
 The injuries of Greece demand thy breath,
 See in my hand the instrument of death.

EPIGONIAD.

B.C. Soon after the conclusion of the treaty with the
 347. elder Dionysius, Carthage was devastated by a plague, and her colonies in Africa, Sardinia, and Sicily disturbed by frequent insurrections; but by the mixed firmness and prudence of her rulers, these dangers were averted and the city restored to its former prosperity and vigor. 2. The death of the elder Dionysius, and the tumults occasioned by the cruelties of his son * and successor, afforded the Carthaginians a favourable opportunity of extending their power in Sicily, and they were not slow in taking advantage of it. 3. A great armament was sent over, of which Mago was appointed commander, and the harbour of Syracuse was captured at the very first onset.

4. The Syracusans implored the aid of Corinth, and

* The younger Dionysius possessed all his father's vices and none of his virtues. When he first ascended the throne, by the advice of his cousin, the amiable Dion, he invited Plato to his court, and for some time was a pupil of that philosopher. But the innate faults of his disposition were not to be eradicated even by the lessons of Plato, and his tyranny at length becoming intolerable, the Syracusans, headed by Dion, rose in rebellion and sent him into exile. When Dion was assassinated, Dionysius returned after an absence of ten years, and again obtained possession of the Syracusan throne. His triumph, however, was short, he was again expelled by Timoleon, and compelled to fly to Corinth, where he was reduced to such a depth of misery as to keep a school for his support.

Timoleon * one of the greatest generals of antiquity, was sent to their assistance. 5. Nothing could exceed the dismal aspect of affairs when Timoleon landed at Syracuse. Icetes the Leontine had possession of the city, Dionysius with a strong garrison was in the citadel, the harbour and all its fortifications had been captured by the Carthaginians, and the Syracusans themselves were almost equally destitute of arms, money, and hope.

6. Luckily for the Syracusans, Dionysius, when shutting himself up in the citadel, had neglected providing a sufficient store of provisions; he was consequently soon compelled to propose terms of accommodation, and these being soon settled, he united his forces with those of Timoleon, and placed at his disposal the immense magazine of arms which the elder Dionysius had collected in the citadel. 7. The Carthaginian army consisted principally of mercenaries, many of whom were levied in the Greek colonies; to these Timoleon sent letters, expostulating with them on the disgrace of bearing arms against their countrymen, and although he did not succeed in detaching any of them from the Carthaginian army, yet his negotiations having reached the ears of Mago, inspired him with such distrust in the fidelity of his followers, that he at once led back his army from Syracuse and returned home.

8. The Carthaginians, indignant that the object of their highest ambition had been thus lost when almost within their grasp, vented the first burst of their indignation on the unfortunate general. Mago was brought to trial, but

* Timoleon was such an enemy of tyranny, that he killed his own brother for having attempted to make himself absolute at Corinth. After having defeated the Carthaginians he established a salutary code of laws, which for a time made Syracuse a prosperous and happy community. He died at Syracuse about 337 years before the birth of Christ, and twenty before the usurpation of Agathocles. A monument was erected to his memory, and the tears of a grateful nation watered his tomb.

anticipated their vengeance by suicide. So violent, however, was the hatred of the people, that his dead body was deprived of the rites of sepulture, and exposed on a gibbet.

9. To retrieve their power in Sicily new forces were raised, and two generals, Amilcar and Annibal, were sent out with an army of seventy thousand men, and a fleet consisting of two hundred ships of war and a thousand vessels of burden.

10. The news of the arrival of so imposing a force renewed the terror of the Syracusans. Timoleon alone was unmoved, and resolved to meet the Carthaginians in the field, although he could persuade only three thousand Syracusans and four thousand auxiliaries to accompany him; and even of these more than a thousand deserted before he had completed a day's march. 11. With this very disproportionate force Timoleon came up with the enemy near the river Crimisus, and by an unexpected attack threw their whole army into confusion; a total rout ensued, ten thousand of the invaders were slain, of whom three thousand were citizens of Carthage. 12. The Carthaginians were so humbled by this unexpected overthrow that they dared not again meet Timoleon in the field, their towns fell one by one into the hands of the enemy, until at length they were forced to solicit peace, and accept the terms dictated by the conqueror.

13. While Carthage was still smarting under the consequences of this unfortunate expedition, her liberties at home were threatened with ruin from the ambition of Hanno, one of the principal men in the state. His first intention was to poison the leaders of the senate and the rest of the nobility at a feast given in honour of his daughter's marriage. 14. This diabolical plot was discovered: but the wealth and power of the criminal shielded him from punishment; an edict was issued forbidding expensive feasts, and no other notice was taken of the attempt. 15. Disappointed in his intended treachery, Hanno

next resolved on open force, and arming his slaves to the number of twenty thousand, he took the field, and invited the Moorish and African princes to join with him in destroying Carthage. 16. This appeal was disregarded, the forces of the traitor were routed by an army hastily levied, and he himself made prisoner. He was put to death with the most cruel tortures, and according to the barbarous custom of Carthage his children and nearest relatives shared the same fate.

17. The Carthaginians, though so often defeated, continued to interfere in the affairs of Sicily, and to embrace every opportunity that the dissensions of the different states afforded for extending their authority. Agathocles, a man of mean birth, had acquired great ascendancy in Syracuse, the Carthaginians lent him their assistance, and finally enabled him to become absolute master of the state.

18. Agathocles soon became disgusted with the power exercised by the Carthaginians, and, regardless of the ties of gratitude, declared war against them. Amilcar was immediately sent from Carthage to encounter this new enemy; he overthrew Agathocles in a decisive engagement, and compelled him to take refuge within the walls of Syracuse. 19. The town was immediately invested, and every thing seemed to promise a complete triumph to Amilcar at no very distant day; when Agathocles suddenly baffled all his calculations by one of the most extraordinary proceedings recorded in history. Unable to meet his enemy in the field, and defending even Syracuse with difficulty, he resolved to transport his forces into Africa, and by the dread of a nearer danger, compel the Carthaginians to quit Sicily.

20. Having assembled the Syracusans, he declared to them that he had discovered a sure means of liberating the city, provided that an army and a small sum of money were placed at his disposal, adding that it was essential to *his success to have the entire plan kept a profound secret.*

An army of liberated slaves, and a sum of fifty talents, were placed at his disposal ; a fleet was prepared in secret, and having eluded the vigilance of the blockading squadron, he arrived safely in Africa, before the Carthaginians had received the slightest intimation of his intentions.

B.C. 21. An eclipse of the sun, which took place immediately after their landing, at first terrified the invading army ; but Agathocles informed them that this prodigy always portended a change of affairs, and was therefore ominous to the Carthaginians, who had hitherto been uniformly successful. 22. Under pretence of a vow made to Proserpine and Ceres, he burned his fleet, and having thus shewn his soldiers that their only chance of safety was in victory, he fearlessly advanced into the country, captured Tunis and several other cities, the plunder of which he divided among his soldiers, and inspired many of the African princes with the hope of throwing off the yoke of Carthage.

23. Hanno and Bomilcar were sent to resist this daring invader, with forces that almost quadrupled the Sicilian army ; but by the death of Hanno, who fell early in the engagement, fighting valiantly at the head of the sacred band, and by the treachery of Bomilcar, who made no effort to remedy the confusion caused by the death of his colleague, Agathocles obtained a complete victory. He even stormed the enemy's camp, where were found heaps of fetters and chains, which, in confident anticipation of victory, the Carthaginians had prepared for the invading army.

24. The consternation in Carthage, when the news of this defeat arrived, was dreadful ; they thought that they saw Agathocles already at their gates, preparing for the utter destruction of their city. The priests were consulted to know whether the gods had been offended, and how *their* anger might be appeased. They replied, that Carthage had violated its duty to its two most powerful and

friendly celestial patrons, for that the presents now sent to the Tyrian Hercules did not as usual consist of the full tenth of the annual gains of all the citizens, and that the sacrifices offered to Saturn (probably the same god as the Moloch of Scripture) which were originally composed of the children of the highest nobility, were now the mere offspring of slaves and miserable aliens. 25. In consequence of this sacerdotal response, presents of enormous value were sent to the temple of Hercules at Tyre, and a number of youths of the highest rank were cruelly sacrificed at the altar of Saturn. 26. In the midst of these distresses vessels came from Tyre, conveying the old men, the women and children who had been sent away when Alexander advanced against that city. Notwithstanding their own distress, the Carthaginians received them with the greatest kindness, and treated them with the most affectionate hospitality.

27. Amilcar, while pressing vigorously the siege of Syracuse was surprised by an unexpected order to return and defend his own country. He resolved to make another effort to capture the town before his retreat from before the walls; and to dispirit the garrison, he spread a report that Agathocles had been defeated and slain; but just at the moment that he was about to commence the assault, he had the mortification to see a vessel, speedily equipped by Agathocles, break through the Carthaginian fleet, and arrive safely under the walls of Syracuse. Amilcar, hopeless of success, retreated from the walls, and sent home five thousand of his best troops. Shortly after, advancing a second time into the Syracusan territories, he was suddenly attacked, defeated, and slain.

28. Bomilcar, whose treachery we have mentioned before, took advantage of the confusion which the invasion of Agathocles had caused, to make an effort for sovereign power. He was, however, soon compelled to retreat by the *valour and patriotism* of the Carthaginian youth; and

finding his case hopeless he surrendered, on condition that his life, and the lives of his associates, should be spared. The former condition was grossly violated, for Bomilcar, after being subjected to the most cruel indignities, was put to death by horrid and lingering tortures.

Questions.

1. To what calamities was Carthage exposed ?
2. What opportunity did they take for invading Sicily ?
3. Who commanded the expedition ?
4. To whom did the Syracusans apply ?
5. What was the state of Syracuse at the arrival of Timoleon ?
6. How did he prevail on Dionysius to submit ?
7. By what means did he terrify Mago ?
8. What effect did this produce in Carthage ?
9. What generals were next sent out ?
10. How did Timoleon act ?
11. What was his success ?
12. What was the event ?
13. To what danger was Carthage exposed from a conspiracy ?
14. Why was not Hanno punished ?
15. How did he subsequently act ?
16. What became of him ?
17. What new opportunity did the Carthaginians take to interfere in the affairs of Sicily ?
18. Why did Agathocles quarrel with the Carthaginians ?
19. What was the success of the war ?
20. To what strange resolution did Agathocles come ?
21. How did Agathocles explain the eclipse ?
22. Why did he burn his fleet ?
23. How did he obtain a victory over the Carthaginians ?
24. What consequences followed this defeat ?
25. Was the cruel advice of the Carthaginian priests followed ?
26. What calamity afflicted Tyre at this time ?
27. How was the siege of Syracuse raised ?
28. What conspiracy was crushed at Carthage ?

CHAPTER IV.

HISTORY OF CARTHAGE CONCLUDED.

But did this boaster threaten, did he pray,
Or by his own example urge their stay?
None, none of these, but ran himself away. DRYDEN.

1. OPHELLAS, king of Cyrene, had joined Agathocles with considerable forces; but the Sicilian, dreading the abilities of the African prince, poisoned him at an entertainment. Having by this atrocious perfidy removed the only rival that he dreaded, he thought that he might safely revisit Sicily, leaving to his son the command of the African army. 2. Never did any monarch take a more unfortunate resolution: the army in Africa, committed to a young and inexperienced general, fell into a state of licentiousness that made them formidable to every body but the enemy; the Greek states, warned by the example of Ophellas, withheld their aid; and the African princes vied with each other in hastening to return to their ancient mistress, Carthage.

3. Agathocles hearing of this fatal alteration, came back to Africa with the utmost expedition, and finding that all his efforts could not retrieve his affairs, he fled back privately to Sicily, leaving his sons and his army victims to the Carthaginians. As soon as the soldiers heard of the desertion of their general, they murdered his sons, and then surrendered themselves to the Carthaginians. Agathocles did not long survive this expedition, so promising in the beginning, so fatal in its termination; he died at Syracuse, some say from grief, but according to most authors, by poison.

4. After the death of Agathocles, the Carthaginians continued their intrigues in Sicily, and soon acquired a *predominant influence* in the island. The Greek colonists

finding themselves in danger of utter ruin, solicited the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, who had married the daughter of Agathocles, and was then in Italy, endeavouring to protect the colonies of Magna Græcia from the increasing power of the Romans. 5. Pyrrhus made a successful campaign in Sicily; every Carthaginian town, except Lilybæum, submitted to his arms; but the affairs of Italy soon requiring his presence, the fruits of his victories were lost almost as soon as they had been acquired.

6. Hiero, king of Syracuse, was the next protector of the independence of Sicily; he successfully resisted the encroachments of the Carthaginians; but a new enemy was now about to appear, whose strength compelled him to unite with his former foes, and whose valour finally triumphed over both together. 7. The Romans, under pretence of sustaining the Mamertines, invaded Sicily, and never rested until they became absolute masters of the entire island. As this event was the ostensible cause of the Punic wars, which ended in the total ruin of Carthage, we shall be more particular in the narrative than its apparent importance would seem to require.

8. In the age of which we write, there appear to have existed independent troops of soldiers, who, like the free companies of the middle ages, acknowledged allegiance to no one but their leader, and were ready to tender their services to any monarch that would afford them good pay. 9. A body of these, in the service of Agathocles, after the death of that monarch, treacherously got possession of Messina, and put all the inhabitants to the sword. A Roman legion, inspired by their example, and encouraged by their aid, acted in the same way at Rhegium, a city on the Italian side of the Sicilian strait. 10. The Romans were not slow in punishing those who had thus attacked the people of Rhegium; a consul was sent against them, and they were all mercilessly destroyed. The independent companies at Messina, called also the Mamertines, were

about the same time attacked by the Syracusans; they were defeated in the field, and at the same time dispirited by the loss of their allies at Rhegium. 11. In this dilemma one half of the Mamertines invoked the aid of the Carthaginians, and put them into immediate possession of the citadel, while the others put themselves under the protection of Rome. 12. The Romans, after some hesitation, resolved to aid the Mamertines. Appius Claudius was sent with a numerous army, which he contrived to get across the Sicilian strait in spite of the African fleet. The Carthaginian garrison, in the citadel of Messina, were soon compelled to submit to Appius, and thus commenced the first Punic war. The remainder of the history of Carthage is identified with that of Rome, and will be found in Pinnock's Roman History, chapters xiv. xv. and xvi.

13. The principal deities worshipped by the Carthaginians were "the queen of heaven," probably the same as the Syrian Astarte, and Saturn, the inhuman rites of whose worship identify him with the Phœnician Moloch. The prevalence of human sacrifice has been already mentioned: so attached were they to this horrid custom, that when other nations made its cessation a condition of their treaties with Carthage, the treaty was never observed for more than a few months.

14. The constitution of Carthage is extravagantly praised by Aristotle; he declares that it combined the advantages, and avoided the evils, of aristocracy and democracy; and that during the course of several centuries, there had been no instance of oppression on the part of the nobles, or discontent on the part of the people; but it is not easy to discover the precise nature of this constitution, for we have no Carthaginian records, and our knowledge of that people is derived from the accounts given by their implacable enemies. There were two chief magistrates, called Suffetes, who somewhat resembled the Roman consuls in power and dignity; a senate of nobles, but

how selected does not appear; and a house of representatives chosen from the people. The vote of the senate when unanimous, had the force of a law; but if there was a division of sentiment, the people, or third estate of the realm, were consulted. It was soon found inconvenient to collect the entire people, or to take their votes when collected, and in their place a representative body of one hundred and four were elected, and to them the authority of the people was delegated. A committee of five were selected from the house of representatives, who exercised the same functions as the Roman tribunes and the Spartan ephori. We also read of a "præfectus morum," whose authority seems to have been similar to that of a Roman censor.

The renown of Carthage rests solely on her commercial skill and maritime enterprise. Literature and the fine arts appear to have been greatly neglected. The great Hannibal is said to have composed some works in the Greek language; and Sallust speaks of some Punic books, from which he obtained information for his history of the Jugurthine war. Mago's Treatise on Rural Economy was translated by order of the Roman senate; and Pliny mentions some Carthaginian writers on the geography of Africa. These few and brief notices contain all the information that has been transmitted to posterity respecting the literature of Carthage; and this deficiency is a circumstance more fatal to its renown than all the destructive ravages of the Romans, whose immortal hatred would have found it more difficult to abolish the elegant inventions of genius than to extinguish the most splendid monuments of wealth and grandeur.

Questions.

1. What opportunity did Agathocles take of leaving Africa?
2. What ill consequences followed?
3. How did Agathocles behave?

4. What followed the death of Agathocles?
5. How did Pyrrhus act?
6. What new enemy now appeared?
7. Under what pretence did the Romans interfere in the affairs of Sicily?
8. What strange bodies of warriors were common at the period?
9. What cities did these attack?
10. How were they punished?
11. To whom did the Mamertines apply for aid?
12. What was the consequence?
13. What Deities were worshipped by the Carthaginians?
14. Can you give any account of the constitution of Carthage?
15. Was Carthage distinguished for literature?

CHAPTER V.

THE SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

(From the Death of Alexander to that of Perdiccas.)

Where is the Assyrian lion's golden hide,
That all the East once grasp'd in lordly paw?
Where that great Persian bear, whose swelling pride
The lion's self tore out with ravenous jaw?
Or he, which 'twixt a lion and a pard,
Through all the world with nimble pinions far'd,
And to his greedy whelps his conquer'd kingdoms shar'd?

PHINEAS FLETCHER.

1. THE abilities of Alexander as a general and B. C.
a conqueror, have always received their due meed 323.
of praise, but he had greater claims than these to fame
and renown, which are for the most part omitted or for-
gotten. The establishment of a commercial intercourse
between Europe and Asia had from the first engaged his
attention; for this purpose he examined the courses of the
Indus and Hydaspes, opened the mouths of the Persian
rivers, which the barbarous policy of the preceding mo-
narchs had closed, and erected several towns that formed a

chain of communication between Greece and India. 2. Of these Alexandria in Egypt was the most remarkable ; it succeeded to the glories of Tyre, and inherited its wealth, its consequence, and its enterprise ; for eighteen centuries it held the first rank among commercial towns, and was the depot from whence the luxuries of the East were supplied to Europe. 3. But the life of Alexander was too brief for the accomplishment of the magnificent plans that he had in contemplation ; he died when every thing promised most fair for the stability and greatness of his empire, and the quarrels of his followers changed at once the whole appearance of the East, and founded new dynasties, whose wisdom as well as folly prepared a way for the extension of the Roman empire.

4. Alexander, on his death-bed, gave to Perdiccas the symbol of authority, his signet-ring, and from the traits of character recorded of Perdiccas, it appears that he could not have made a better selection. It was Perdiccas that refused a share of his master's treasures, when they were about to invade Asia, declaring himself contented with that hope which Alexander resolved alone to retain. Possessing thus some portion of Alexander's enthusiasm, great political skill, and a more than ordinary share of prudence. Perdiccas seemed the most fit to consolidate the empire which Alexander had acquired. 5. But the generals of the Macedonian army were too confident in their own powers to submit to their former equal ; scarcely had the regency been formed, when the Macedonian infantry, at the instigation of Meleager, set up as their monarch Arrhidæus, the brother of the late king. 6. The civil war which was thus on the point of breaking out, was prevented by the generous resignation of Arrhidæus, and as his imbecility was manifest even to his most strenuous supporters, all parties concurred in the propriety of a new arrangement. 7. By this, the regency was confirmed to Perdiccas, the shadow of royalty left to Arrhidæus, provi-

sion made for the child with which Roxana, the wife of Alexander was pregnant, and the several provinces distributed among the Macedonian generals.

8. The body of Alexander lay unburied and neglected during these dissensions, and it was not until two years after his death that his corpse was laid in the tomb at Alexandria. 9. His name, however, was still dear to his former followers, for they kept his brother, though little better than an idiot, on the throne, and opposed the intrigues of Perdiccas, who aspired to the hand of Cleopatra, sister to the late king, hoping by such a union to strengthen his claim to the sceptre. But while Perdiccas was thus employed, a powerful league had been formed for his destruction, and the storm burst forth from a quarter whence it was least expected.

10. When Alexander, in his advance against Darius, passed through Asia Minor, he did not wait to subdue the northern provinces; these were inhabited by the Cappadocians and Paphlagonians, fierce and barbarous tribes, impatient of any subjection. On the death of Alexander, these tribes, under the command of Ariarathes, asserted their independence, and Eumenes was sent against them by Perdiccas. 11. The regent at the same time transmitted orders to Antigonus and Leonatus, the Macedonian governors in Western Asia, to aid Eumenes with all their forces; these commands were disobeyed, and Perdiccas was obliged to march with the royal army against Ariarathes. The superior discipline of the Macedonian army enabled Perdiccas to overthrow the gallant but barbarous soldiers of Ariarathes, but the victory was tarnished by the cruelty shewn to the Cappadocian and Paphlagonian leaders.

12. After his return from this expedition Perdiccas summoned Antigonus to appear before him, and answer for his disobedience; Antigonus, seeing his danger, entered into a league with Ptolemy of Egypt, Antipater and

Craterus of Macedon, and some other Macedonian governors to crush the power of Perdiccas. The regent, alarmed at this powerful combination, prepared for resistance with vigour proportionate to his danger, leaving to Eumenes the care of Asia Minor, he advanced himself against Ptolemy, the most dangerous, because the most crafty of his enemies.

13. The Macedonian governors had, in the mean time, invaded Phrygia, they were joined at their landing by Neoptolemus with a considerable body of horse, but his injudicious advice more than counterbalanced the value of his assistance. 14. Anxious to depreciate the party he had deserted, he described the army of Eumenes as so weak that it could not make even the slightest resistance; in consequence of this the Macedonian army was divided, Antipater with one part took the road towards Syria to aid in the attack on Perdiccas, while Craterus advanced against Eumenes. 15. The engagement took place not far from the Trojan plains, where Craterus had drawn up his forces, taking himself the command of the right wing, and entrusting the left to Neoptolemus. 16. The barbarian cavalry commenced the battle by a furious charge on the right wing of the Macedonian army; the regularity of their advance, the rapidity of their manœuvres and the violent shock of their charge shewed Craterus how fatally he had been deceived by Neoptolemus; he did not however despair, every effort that valor or prudence could suggest to stop the progress of the victorious horsemen was made, until Craterus fell wounded from his horse and lay undistinguished amid the heaps who had been overthrown in the charge. 17. In the other wing the traitor Neoptolemus had fallen beneath the avenging sword of Eumenes, and the fate of the day was decided. While receiving the congratulations of his officers, Eumenes learned the unfortunate fate of Craterus, and hastened across the field to soothe the last moments of his former comrade.

He found him almost in the agonies of death, and bitterly lamented the misfortune that had changed old friends into rivals and enemies.

18. Intelligence of this great victory was sent to Perdiccas, but ere the messenger reached his camp that general was no more. 19. Refusing any terms of pacification with Ptolemy, and threatening additional vengeance for the crime of having buried the late conqueror in Alexandria instead of the temple of Jupiter Ammon, Perdiccas advanced to the siege of Pelusium, the key of Egypt on the Syrian side. 20. The strength of the town defied the utmost efforts of Perdiccas, his army became weary of the siege, especially as their toils were aggravated by want; the lenity also with which Ptolemy treated some prisoners that fell into his hands, presented an unfavourable contrast to the severity of Perdiccas; a conspiracy was formed against the unfortunate general, and he was assassinated in his tent. 21. The principal agent in this crime was Python, who had been previously employed by Perdiccas to massacre a body of mercenary Greeks that had mutinied in Media; and the fall of the author by the agent of this ruthless deed, was looked on as a species of retribution. 22. Two days after this event, the news of the victory obtained by Eumenes reached the camp; forty-eight hours sooner it might have saved the life of Perdiccas, it now only served to strengthen the enemies of his party.

23. Meantime the events that occurred in Greece were neither few nor unimportant. The power of Macedon, and the stupendous victories in the East, had crushed, but not destroyed, the spirit of Grecian freedom. The death of Alexander seemed a favourable opportunity for the recovery of independence; the Athenians, stimulated by Demosthenes and Hyperides were the first to enter on the project, they were aided by the Ætolians and the mountaineers of Doris and Phocis. Of the other Grecian states, Thebes no longer existed, Sparta was too proud to act

under her ancient rival, the Achæans and Arcadians too prudent to risk their present tranquillity for the doubtful chances of war.

24. Antipater, roused by the news of this confederacy, advanced from Macedon to the straits of Thermopylae, where he was met by the Athenians, under the command of Leosthenes. A fierce engagement ensued, in which the Macedonians were defeated and compelled to take refuge in Lamia, a strong fortress not far from the Malian gulf. As most of the contests in this struggle took place in the vicinity of Lamia, it is usually called the Lamian war.

25. Leosthenes pressed the siege of Lamia with vigor, but the strength of its fortifications baffled his efforts; he was slain in a sally by Antipater, and succeeded by Antiphilus, a general of equal bravery but inferior ability. Leonatus having levied an army, marched towards Lamia to raise the siege, Antiphilus hastened to intercept him, and the Macedonians were a second time defeated.

26. This was the last triumph of the confederates. Antipater broke through the enemies' lines and united his forces with the remains of the army of Leonatus, and being soon after joined by Craterus he totally overthrew the power of his opponents in a bloody and decisive engagement.

27. The confederates were now compelled to sue for peace, but Antipater, eager to punish the Athenians, refused to treat with them collectively. The Athenians had no choice, submission was their only resource, and they subscribed to the terms which Antipater dictated. These were, that the democratic form of government should be modified, all the expences of the war paid, a Macedonian garrison received into the fortress of Munichia, and the orators Hyperides and Demosthenes delivered up to punishment.

28. When the two orators heard of the last cruel condition, they consulted for their safety by flight. Hyperides took refuge in Ægina, and Demosthenes in the little island

Calauria on the Argive coast. Hither they were pursued by the emissaries of Antipater, Hyperides being brought to the Macedonian general, after being subjected to the most disgraceful insults, was cruelly put to death; Demosthenes dreading similar ignominies, took poison as soon as he was made a prisoner.

29. Antipater, having arranged the affairs of Athens, marched against the Ætolians, who, relying on their mountains and fastnesses, shewed no signs of submission. He collected a large army to punish their pride, but just when about to invade their country, he was summoned to oppose Perdiccas in Asia. 30. Peace was therefore concluded with the Ætolians on favourable conditions, and thus the authority of Macedon was again established paramount in Greece.

Questions.

1. What commercial design did Alexander form?
2. Which was the most remarkable city he built in consequence?
3. What prevented the completion of this design?
4. To whom did he give his ring when dying?
5. What was the first attack made on the authority of Perdiccas?
6. How was a civil war prevented?
7. On what condition was peace made?
8. How was Alexander's body neglected?
9. How did the Macedonians shew respect to the memory of Alexander?
10. What provinces rebelled on the death of Alexander?
11. What were the events of the war?
12. By whom was a league formed against Perdiccas?
13. What general joined the Macedonians?
14. Who misled the Macedonians?
15. Where did the armies come to an engagement?
16. Did the cavalry of either party distinguish themselves?
17. What was the termination of the battle?
18. Did Perdiccas hear of this victory?
19. What town did he besiege?
20. Why was he assassinated?
21. Who was the murderer?

22. When did the news of the victory obtained by Eumenes reach the camp ?
23. What events in the meantime occurred in Greece ?
24. What victory did the Athenians obtain ?
25. Had they any further success ?
26. How was the war terminated ?
27. On what condition was peace granted ?
28. What became of the orators ?
29. Against what other people did Antipater wage war ?
30. How was the war terminated ?

CHAPTER VI.

THE SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

(From the Assassination of Perdiccas to the Death of Eumenes.)

Lamented chief! it was not given
To thee to change the doom of heaven,
And crush that dragon in its birth,
Predestin'd scourge of guilty earth.

SCOTT.

1. FROM the occurrences detailed in the last chapter it is manifest that the Macedonian Satraps had resolved on asserting their independence, but their reverence for the name of Alexander, and an anxiety to preserve the integrity of the empire, still prevented them from assuming the title of kings. We are now about to consider the second act of this great drama, which terminated in the establishment of four great monarchies, Egypt, Syria, Thrace, and Macedon.

2. The day after the death of Perdiccas, Ptolemy came over to the army with a large supply of wine and provisions; his kindness and popular manners so delighted the army, that they unanimously offered him the regency. 3. This dangerous post he had the prudence to decline, but at his recommendation it was given to Arrhidæus and Python.

4. The news of the defeat and death of Craterus filled the entire Macedonian army with indignation; Craterus had been equally the favourite of Alexander and the army; Eumenes was unpopular not only from his connection with Perdiccas, but also because he had held the unwarlike office of under-secretary. Eumenes and his adherents were proclaimed traitors, and it was resolved that a party should be sent against him. 5. Soon after this Arrhidæus, the nominal sovereign, and his wife Euridice, arrived at the camp. The queen possessed considerable talents for intrigue, and by her machinations soon rendered the regency so disagreeable to Arrhidæus and Python that they resigned their office. Great then was the astonishment of Antipater on his arrival to find the whole Macedonian army under the command of a woman. 6. His remarks on this subject so provoked the soldiers of Euridice's party, that they would have torn him in pieces but for the timely interference of Antigonus and Selêucus. These leaders so forcibly represented to the army the great crime they were about to commit in murdering one of their best and bravest generals, that the soldiers ran into the opposite extreme, and invested Antipater with the regency.

7. After having made a new division of the provinces, Antipater removed Arrhidæus and Euridice to Pella in Macedon, and committed the conduct of the war against Eumenes to Antigonus, whose army he strengthened by a body of cavalry, under the command of his son Cassander. 8. Antigonus even at this time contemplated the possibility of raising himself to the supreme power, but his designs were penetrated by the crafty Cassander, who vainly warned Antipater of his intentions. A quarrel took place between the pair; Cassander returned to Europe, where he was about to commence a career as ambitious and bloody as that of Antigonus in Asia.

9. Eumenes was defeated by Antigonus, in Cappadocia, and forced to take refuge in Nora, a town so forti-

fied by nature and art, that it was scarcely possible to take it by regular siege. 10. Antigonus sought and obtained an interview with Eumenes, hoping to procure his assistance in the ambitious projects that he contemplated; but Eumenes declared that while he could wield a sword he would defend the interests of his royal benefactor's family. During the siege of Nora news arrived of the death of Antipater, which produced a new revolution in the Macedonian empire. 11. The siege finally terminated by the escape of Eumenes and his friends on some fleet horses that he had trained for the purpose.

12. Cassander, on his return to Macedon, had incurred the displeasure of his father by forming an intimate and criminal connection with Euridice, the wife of the imbecile Arrhidæus. Incensed at this, Antipater bequeathed the regency to Polysperchon, a distinguished general of Alexander, and excluded his son from power. 13. The intrigues of Cassander and Euridice disturbed Polysperchon in Europe, while Antigonus became daily more formidable in Asia. He had now reduced many of the provinces in Asia Minor, and having captured Ephesus, he seized on four ships laden with royal treasure, which he detained, as he alleged, to pay his troops. 14. Alliances were soon formed between Cassander and Antigonus on the one hand, and between Eumenes and Polysperchon on the other. Antigonus sent a supply of ships and soldiers to Cassander, who used them to secure himself in southern Greece, where, through means of his friend Nicanor he had already obtained possession of Munichia.

15. The first acts of Polysperchon's regency were of very questionable wisdom: he recalled Olympias, the mother of Alexander, whom Antipater, a sworn foe to all women that interfered in politics, had sent into banishment; and he proclaimed his intention of restoring democracy in all the states of Greece. 16. By the former proceeding, Macedon was distracted by the intrigues of

rival queens, equally remarkable for criminality and ambition; by the latter, the flames of civil war were kindled in every Grecian community.

17. Of all the Hellenic states, Athens had ever been the most remarkable for a passionate attachment to democracy; but the presence of Nicanor, with a strong garrison at Munychia, prevented the present indulgence of their wishes. They sent embassies without number, soliciting Polysperchon to relieve them from the interference of Cassander's agents, and at length the regent sent his son Alexander to their relief. 18. Phocion and some others, who had learned to dread the violence of an Athenian mob, went to meet Alexander, and prevail on him, if possible, to leave the government established by Antipater unaltered. 19. Whatever effect these representations might have had on the mind of the youthful general, he had gone too far to recede. No sooner did the Athenians learn that an army was near to support them, than they called an assembly of all the Athenian inhabitants, strangers and even slaves included, and in this tumultuous assembly unanimously resolved to re-establish the democracy. 20. The unanimity of such an assembly might appear surprising, did we not remember the danger of dissent. This, indeed, was practically exemplified in their next resolution; they determined to proceed against all aristocrats as capital enemies of the state. Several illustrious individuals fell victims to this persecution, and amongst the rest Phocion, the bravest general and most incorruptible statesman that Athens had produced; he had applied to the regent for protection, but was inhumanly given up to the populace.

21. A little before the execution of Phocion, Cassander seized on the Piræus, and successfully exerted himself to collect a considerable naval force. By this means he was enabled to repay the favours that he had received from Antigonus at the beginning of his fortunes. 22. Antigo-

nus had either subdued or brought over to his side all the governors of Asia Minor except Arrhidæus, who presided over the Lesser Phrygia; against him he now directed his attacks, and Arrhidæus, unable to resist his power, applied for assistance to Polysperchon. The regent sent Clytus with a powerful fleet to his relief; and Cassander, hearing of the expedition, despatched a naval force under the command of Nicanor, to prevent Clytus from affording any relief to Arrhidæus.

23. The sea-fight of the Thracian Bosphorus is remarkable for its strange alternation of fortune, and for the great effect it had in deciding the fate of the Macedonian empire. When the fleets met, Nicanor was defeated with the loss of half his fleet, and compelled to take refuge in the harbour of Chalcedon. Antigonus had purchased some small craft and merchant vessels at Byzantium; these he filled with soldiers, and followed the victorious Clytus, who had landed on the Thracian coast; he attacked him in the midst of his exultation; surprised and encumbered with prisoners, the greater part of the victors fell an easy prey. Clytus, with some of his followers, attempted to escape in their vessels, but even of this chance they were bereft; for Nicanor, who had been in the meantime reinforced, blocked up the harbour, and captured every ship except the admiral's own galley. 24. Clytus, however, was still followed by ill fortune; he was met in Thrace, where he landed, by some deserters and murdered.

25. The news of this victory was equally serviceable to Antigonus and Cassander; it made the power of the former paramount in Western Asia, and put the latter in possession of Athens. The Athenians were treated by Cassander with great kindness; he appointed Demetrius Phalerius their governor, who ruled the city with justice and moderation for ten years.

26. The Macedonian regent being unable to drive Cassander from the Piræus, had marched into the Peloponnesus

to reduce the refractory Arcadians ; but the gallant defence of Megalopolis detained his army in a fruitless siege, while events in Macedon were more imperatively requiring his presence.

27. Olympias, during the absence of the regent, had secured a great portion of the Macedonian army in her favour ; relying on their strength, she arrested Arrhidæus and Euridice, and immediately after had them murdered in prison. 28. When the news of this crime reached Cassander, he hastened to avenge the murder of his mistress. Olympias, unable to meet him in the field, took refuge in Pydna, and brought with her all the ladies of the court. Cassander advanced to the siege, and after a brief defence it surrendered. Olympias, the interesting Roxana, her son Alexander Ægus, and Thessalonica, the youngest daughter of Philip, were among the captives. Olympias was put to death after a mock trial, a fate she well deserved. Cassander knowing that his popularity with the soldiers would be increased by his connection with the royal family, resolved to marry Thessalonica, a princess of greater influence than his lost Euridice.

29. The nuptials were celebrated with magnificence proportionate to his ambition and her rank ; and the influence acquired by Cassander in consequence enabled him to prevent the return of Polysperchon. The regent retired to the Peloponnesus, where for a long time he retained the shadow of authority over the few Macedonians who still clung to the family of Alexander.

30. While in Europe the royal family of Macedon were fast losing their hereditary throne, events in the East were stripping them of their acquired dominions with equal rapidity. 31. Eumenes, after his escape from Nora, had taken the command of the royal army, but the Satraps for the most part refused to acknowledge his authority, and the Argyraspides, as the body-guards of Alexander were named from their silver shields, were always mutinying

against a general who had been a secretary. 32. Notwithstanding all these disadvantages, he made some important acquisitions in Phœnicia and Palestine, but on the approach of Antigonus with superior forces, he was compelled to retreat beyond the Euphrates. It was in vain that Eumenes summoned Seleucus and Python, the Satraps of Persia and Media to his assistance, the former was unwilling, and the latter, himself a fugitive, unable to give any aid. The Median princes who had revolted from Python submitted, however, to Eumenes, and his army was thus sufficiently strong to give Antigonus some severe checks. By an unexpected change of fortune Eumenes was in turn defeated, and Antigonus enabled to establish his winter-quarters in Media.

33. The winter was spent by Antigonus in successful intrigues with Seleucus; while seditions and conspiracies kept Eumenes in constant employment. Convinced from the temper of his soldiers that the close of his career drew nigh, the old general made his will and destroyed all the letters he had received from persons exposed to the power of Antigonus. Having thus prepared for the worst, he determined to bring the enemies of his master's house to an engagement, which should decide whether the descendants or the servants of Alexander should inherit his dominions.

B.C. 34. This engagement, like the sea-fight at the

316. Bosphorus, is remarkable for the strange alternation of fortune. The infantry of Antigonus were completely broken by the charge of the Argyraspides, but the dust raised by the combatants was so dense, that Antigonus was enabled to send a strong body of light troops unperceived to attack the baggage of the Argyraspides. In the moment of victory the veterans learned that their wives and children had fallen into the hands of the enemy; a scene of terrible confusion followed; in vain did Eumenes exhort them by another charge to retrieve their losses, they burst

out into reproaches against their hapless general, and finally, at the suggestion of some villain more daring than the rest, delivered him, bound with his own sash, into the hands of his bitter enemy Antigonus.

35. Eumenes was put to death by the cruel victor, and thus perished the last of Alexander's generals who retained his loyalty. While he lived the several Satraps, though really independent, took only the title of provincial governors, but when his death had removed the last supporter of loyalty, they all assumed the name and authority of kings.

36. The Argyraspides were punished for their treason: Antigonus, dreading their turbulence, employed them in detachments against the barbarians, and thus destroyed in detail the veterans who had overthrown the Persian empire.

Questions.

1. What designs were entertained by the Macedonian Satraps?
2. How did Ptolemy behave to the army of Perdiccas?
3. Who were appointed regents?
4. What made Eumenes unpopular at this time?
5. How did Euridice obtain influence?
6. To what danger was Antipater exposed?
7. What new arrangements were now made?
8. Why did Cassander quarrel with Antigonus?
9. Where did Eumenes shut himself up?
10. What occurred at his interview with Antigonus?
11. How did the siege of Nora terminate?
12. Why did Antipater leave Polysperchon regent?
13. In what troubles was Polysperchon involved?
14. What new alliances were now formed?
15. Did Polysperchon proceed judiciously?
16. What was the effect of his first acts?
17. How did the Athenians proceed?
18. Who endeavoured to prevent the restoration of democracy?
19. Were they successful?
20. How did the Athenians treat them?
21. What success had Cassander?
22. How was Antigonus employed?

23. Why is the sea fight at the Bosphorus remarkable ?
24. What became of Clytus ?
25. What was the consequence of this victory ?
26. How was the Macedonian regent employed ?
27. What crimes did Olympias commit ?
28. What was the consequence ?
29. What followed from the union of Cassander and Thessalonica ?
30. Where else did the royal family of Macedon meet with misfortune at this time ?
31. What difficulties had Eumenes to encounter ?
32. To what vicissitudes was he subjected ?
33. How did Eumenes prepare for the dangers he had anticipated ?
34. Why is the decisive battle between Eumenes and Antigonus remarkable ?
35. How did Antigonus behave towards Eumenes ?
36. In what manner did he treat the Argyraspides ?



CHAPTER VII.

THE SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

From the Death of Eumenes to the Battle of Ipsus.

A thousand glorious actions that might claim
 Triumphant laurels and immortal fame,
 Confus'd in crowds of glorious actions lie,
 And troops of heroes undistinguished die.

ADDISON.

1. THE death of Eumenes had removed the principal obstacle to the ambition of Antigonus, he began openly to aim at universal dominion, and scarce concealed his intention to seek the sovereignty of the entire Macedonian empire. 2. The Satraps, whose revolt had been the principal cause of Eumenes' calamities, were punished for their perfidy by Antigonus; justly suspecting that they might shew him the treachery they had exhibited to his former governor of Asia, he cashiered Peucestes, satrap of Persia, and put Python of Media to death. 3. Seleuc

the satrap of Babylon, did not wait for the fate which he foresaw the jealousy of Antigonus prepared for him, but fled through the desert with a small train of followers, and took refuge in the Egyptian court.

4. The ambition of Antigonus shewed the Macedonian governors in the West the necessity of combining for their mutual defence, Ptolemy, Cassander, Lysimachus, and Seleucus formed a league for the protection of their several dominions, and sent an embassy to Antigonus, requiring him to quit his new acquisitions. 5. Antigonus haughtily spurned the embassy, and marched his forces into Western Asia, where he could best meet the advance of his several enemies.

6. The commencement of the war seemed to promise that the dominions of Alexander would again be united under a single sovereign. Antigonus overran Syria and Asia Minor; the Greek states, at his instigation, opposed themselves to Cassander, while the Ætolians and Epirotes declared war against Macedon; the mountain tribes of Thrace were induced to attack Lysimachus; Seleucus was a helpless exile, and the whole weight of the war consequently fell on the Egyptian Satrap, who was far more anxious to secure his present province, by consolidating and strengthening the resources of Egypt, than to seek the hazardous possession of new provinces, or the useless triumph of new victories. 7. The confederates, under these circumstances, offered conditions of peace, but the reply of Antigonus convinced them that war or servitude was their only alternative.

8. The first blow was struck by Ptolemy; passing with his army through the desert he encountered Demetrius, the gallant son of Antigonus, near Gaza, and inflicted on him a decisive defeat; the towns and forts of Palestine and Syria opened their gates to Ptolemy, and Demetrius was unable to make any further resistance to the rapid progress of the Egyptians. 9. This war is remarkable for the in-

terchange of mutual civilities by the hostile commander. Ptolemy restored to Demetrius his camp equipage and several of his friends, who had been made prisoners, without ransom, and Demetrius prayed to the gods that he might have an opportunity of returning the favor, declaring that he was more anxious to prove his gratitude than to acquire a triumph. 10. The following year Demetrius solicited and obtained from his father permission to try and retrieve his fame in Syria; the Egyptian army, under the command of Calles, a general of inferior abilities, was totally routed by the youthful warrior, and the Syrian provinces recovered with the same rapidity they had been lost. Demetrius had now the opportunity he had so ardently desired, and he accordingly sent back all his prisoners without ransom to Ptolemy. 11. The defeat of Calles made it necessary for the Egyptian Satrap to retreat, he returned to his province accompanied by a great multitude of Jews, who settled in Alexandria and Cyrene.

12. The tide of war now flowed towards the frontiers of Egypt, but Demetrius was prevented from invading that country by being involved in a dispute with the Arabs.

13. The Nabatheans, an Arab tribe, descended from Nabaioth a son of Ishmael, were the medium of communication between most of the Eastern countries. The caverns near the city and in the rock of Petra were the depôts in which they stored their myrrh and frankincense, until the time when their caravans should set out. 14. Against this people Athenæus, the general of Antigonus was sent, he surprised the magazines at Petra and returned laden with plunder to the borders of Syria. 15. The Nabatheans, enraged at the tidings of this calamity, collected their forces, and urging their dromedaries with incredible velocity through the desert, overtook Athenæus near Gaza, and almost annihilated his army. 16. Demetrius hastened to avenge this loss, but the fastnesses and deserts of Arabia baffled his intentions; we are told that an Arab chief ad-

dressed the Grecian general from a rock, and set before him in such lively terms the danger of the enterprise in which he was engaged, that Demetrius, convinced of the great hazard of his undertaking, immediately returned to Syria.

17. The news that reached him on his return, diverted his arms to another quarter of Asia. Seleucas, on the victory obtained by Ptolemy at Gaza, saw that an opportunity was afforded him of regaining his lost province. Having obtained a small but gallant troop from Ptolemy, he returned to Babylon. His success exceeded his most sanguine expectations. The cities and fortified towns opened their gates at his approach, the inhabitants every where rose in his favor, and so great was the enthusiasm shewn in his behalf, that the news of his attempt and his complete success reached Antigonus at the same time.

18. The Satraps of Persia and Media, whom Antigonus had appointed, clearly saw that the triumph of Seleucus would be the destruction of their power, they accordingly united their forces and advanced against him, but were totally routed. This battle forms an important B.C. epoch in Grecian history, called the era of the Se- 312.

leucidæ. 19. Soon after this a treaty was concluded between Antigonus and all his opponents but Seleucus. This treaty, like many others, was merely a suspension of arms.

29. Cassander, who by one of the articles was obliged to restore freedom to the Grecian cities, made no step to perform the obligation; Ptolemy increased his fleet and seized on several of the Asiatic islands, as means of facilitating his meditated conquest of Syria, and Lysimachus laid claim to the northern provinces of Asia Minor. 21. Cassander about this time felt his situation made unpleasant by the murmurs of the Macedonians, who anxiously expected the accession of Alexander's son. To relieve himself from such a formidable rival, Cassander ordered Roxana and her son to be assassinated, and by similar means soon

after got rid of Hercules, the last survivor of the conqueror's descendants.

22. Antigonus, forced to renew the war, sent his son Demetrius into Greece. Athens was the first state that submitted to his power; Demetrius restored freedom to the inhabitants, and permitted its virtuous governor Demetrius Phalereus to retire to Thebes. The Athenians loaded their deliverer with praise, and it is to their flattery that he probably owes the title *Poliorketes* (*the conqueror of cities*) by which designation he is usually distinguished.

23. After the liberation of Athens, Demetrius sailed to Cyprus and laid siege to its principal city Salamis; Ptolemy sent a fleet to its assistance, but being defeated Salamis was compelled to surrender. The siege of this city is remarkable for the invention of the *Helopolis* or *tower of cities*, a moveable tower which was pushed forward to the hostile walls, and thus enabled the besiegers to fight on the same elevation with the besieged. 24. It was also distinguished by the assumption of the regal title by Antigonus, and eventually by the other Satraps, in consequence of the following circumstance. Demetrius sent the news of his victory to Antigonus by one of those privileged buffoons whom the Greeks frequently kept for their amusement. When he was introduced to give his message he called out either through folly or design, "hail! king Antigonus!" and the Satrap ever after retained the title of king. 25. After an unsuccessful attempt to invade Egypt, the forces of Antigonus laid siege to Rhodes. The islanders made a gallant defence; for an entire year they baffled every effort of Demetrius; at length more than fifty states in Asia and Europe sent embassies in their favour; and the Athenians especially entreated Demetrius to spare the Rhodians and haste to free them from the growing power of Cassander.

26. Demetrius was again successful in Greece, but was obliged to quit his European conquests and hasten to the

assistance of his father, whom dangers now surrounded on every side : Lysimachus had crossed the Hellespont, Ptolemy had entered Syria, and Seleucus with a formidable army, among which were 480 elephants, was advancing through upper Asia. 27. The forces of Antigonus and Seleucus came to an engagement at Ipsus, a village of Cappadocia. Demetrius, by a vigorous charge, broke a body of the enemy's cavalry, but followed them too far ; on his return from the pursuit, he found his father slain and the army irrecoverably defeated. Demetrius made no attempt to renew the engagement, and Seleucus remained undisputed master of the field. 28. The consequences of this victory was a new partition of the provinces, and the final formation of the Satrapies into kingdoms. Seleucus became monarch of Upper Asia, Ptolemy annexed Cœlo-Syria and Palestine to Egypt, Lysimachus obtained the greater part of Asia Minor in addition to Thrace, and Cassander, besides being restored to his supremacy in Greece and Macedon, was rewarded with the fertile province of Cilicia in Asia.

Questions.

1. What was the consequence of the death of Eumenes ?
2. How did Antigonus treat the revolted Satraps ?
3. Whither did Seleucus retreat ?
4. What league was formed against Antigonus ?
5. How did he treat the ambassadors ?
6. Was the commencement of the war favorable to Antigonus ?
7. How did the confederates then act ?
8. Which of them first took the field ?
9. What instance of magnanimity did Ptolemy exhibit ?
10. Which was successful in the following year ?
11. What is remarkable in the retreat of Ptolemy ?
12. What prevented the invasion of Egypt ?
13. Who were the Nabatheans ?
14. By whom were they plundered ?
15. How did they ~~avenger~~ ^{avenge} this injury ?
16. Why did not Demetrius punish them ?

17. How was Seleucus employed ?
18. What battle forms an important æra ?
19. Was there any treaty made among the rivals ?
20. How was this treaty violated ?
21. What crimes did Cassander commit about this time ?
22. Was Demetrius successful in Greece ?
23. What events took place at the siege of Salamis ?
24. When did Antigonus assume the regal title ?
25. For what is the siege of Rhodes remarkable ?
26. How was Demetrius compelled to return into Asia ?
27. Describe the battle of Ipsus ?
28. What were its consequences ?

CHAPTER VIII.

SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

*From the Battle of Ipsus to the Interference of the
Romans in the Affairs of Greece.*

Conquerors, who leave behind
Nothing but ruin wheresoe'er they rove,
And all the flourishing works of peace destroy.

MILTON.

1. THE battle of Ipsus appeared to have for ever crushed the power of Demetrius ; but he was destined still to meet new vicissitudes, and to prove further the instability of fortune. The victorious Seleucus sought an alliance with him, whose vigour and popularity made him formidable, and married Stratonice, the daughter of Demetrius. 2. This enabled the son of Antigonus to maintain his influence in Greece, and to obtain the throne of Macedon, by taking advantage of the civil wars that took place between the sons of Cassander.

B.C. 3. Demetrius did not long enjoy his prosperity ;

288. Lysimachus, king of Thrace, and Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, compelled him to fly from Macedon ; he took refuge at the court of Seleucus, but was imprisoned by his son-in-law, and died a captive.

4. The conquests made by Lysimachus in Asia Minor excited the jealousy of the Syrian monarch; he marched against his ancient comrade, totally defeated his army, and Lysimachus * himself was among the slain. 5. A natural desire to revisit his native land, and make it the seat of his government, induced Seleucus to attempt the conquest of Macedon. He was accompanied on his march by Ptolemy Ceraunus, the son of Agathocles, whom Seleucus had educated, and particularly distinguished by marks of favour.

6. On the road, this ungrateful villain resolved to B.C. murder his benefactor, and the aged Seleucus, after 280. a long and successful reign, fell beneath the dagger of an assassin who ought to have been the first to defend him.

7. Several Asiatic provinces which had been subject to Alexander, took advantage of these civil wars to assert their independence; Cappadocia, Pontus, and Arménia, in the north; Parthia and several others in the east, became separate kingdoms, and were never more subjected to the Greeks.

8. Ptolemy Ceraunus seized on the throne of B.C. Macedon after the death of Seleucus; but a new and 278. more formidable enemy than any the Greeks had hitherto met, was now about to overwhelm the kingdom of Ceraunus. An innumerable multitude of Gauls, unable to find support in their own country, poured into Thrace and Macedon; their ferocity and cruelty spread universal terror; they every where pillaged the temples, and destroyed those monuments of art whose beauty they could not appreciate. Ceraunus led an army against the invaders, but was defeated and slain. 9. From Europe the Gauls passed over into Asia Minor, where, after many severe contests,

* The body of the Thracian monarch was recognized by some soldiers, who saw the favourite dog of the deceased guarding his master's body. No persuasion or violence could induce the faithful animal to quit his master's corpse; and when the body was interred, the dog obstinately refused sustenance, and died on his master's grave.

they finally established themselves in a province, that from them has been named Galatia.

10. On the death of Ceraunus, Antigonus, the son of Demetrius, obtained possession of the Macedonian throne, which he transmitted to his posterity. 11. The supremacy of Macedon was no longer acknowledged by the Grecian states. The combination called the Achean league, enabled them to preserve their independence, and for a short time restored freedom to Greece. (We have now arrived at a period where these revolutions form part of Grecian and Roman history, and we must refer our readers to Pinnock's Greece, chapters xviii. and xix., and to Pinnock's Rome, chapter xvi. &c. for a continuation of the history.)

B.C. 280. 12. On the death of Seleucus, his son Antiochus obtained the throne of Syria. In the beginning of his reign he defeated a large body of the Gauls, and received the title of Soter, (*Saviour*,) from the gratitude or flattery of his subjects. 13. The northern states in Lesser Asia, which had obtained their independence, were now arrived at maturity, and Antiochus vainly endeavoured to bring them again into subjection; he was totally defeated by the king of Pergamus, and the independence of the new kingdoms secured.

14. Nor was Antiochus more fortunate in a war he undertook against Egypt. Magas, the brother of Ptolemy, having married into the Syrian royal family, hoped that he would by this alliance be enabled to establish a new kingdom at Cyrene. Antiochus united with the usurper, and both marched against Ptolemy. 15. The Syrians were defeated in every engagement; the Egyptian fleets laid waste the coasts of Asia Minor, and Magas was soon hurled from the throne. 16. Shortly after this the Gauls advanced towards Ephesus, and Antiochus, vainly endeavouring to check their progress, was defeated and slain.

B.C. 261. 17. Antiochus II. succeeded. The commencement of his reign was prosperous, for he defeated

the Egyptians, and checked the progress of the Gauls. In consequence of these successes, his subjects, with excess of adulation, gave him the surname Theos (*god*). 18. The new kingdoms of Upper Asia began in his reign to endanger the eastern provinces of the empire of the Seleucidæ. The Parthians, joined with the Scythians, threatened to wrest from Antiochus the provinces of Media and Persia. In order to encounter these new enemies in the east, Antiochus found it necessary to tranquillize the west, and accordingly made peace with the king of Egypt. 19. In pursuance of the conditions of this treaty, Antiochus married Berenice, the daughter of Ptolemy, divorcing his former wife, Laodice, and excluding her children from the succession to the crown. 20. Soon after this Ptolemy died, and Antiochus, relieved from the fear of his formidable foe, took back his former wife. Laodice, however, could not forgive the insult she had received; dreading that she might again be sacrificed to some future arrangement, poisoned Antiochus, and procured the murder of her rival, Berenice, and her infant son.

21. In the same year Seleucus Callinicus ascended the Syrian, and Ptolemy Evergetes the Egyptian throne. A long and desultory war continued between the rival princes, during the greater part of their lives. Ptolemy, with a numerous army, crossed the Syrian deserts, and marched through, rather than conquered, Babylonia, Persia, and the other provinces of Upper Asia. He brought back immense spoils, and amongst them the Egyptian idols which Cambyses had taken from Memphis and Thebes. On his return he was met by the army of Seleucus, whom he defeated, and compelled to take refuge in Antioch. This invasion of Ptolemy was like the progress of the desert wind, it spread destruction as it passed; but all traces of the visitation were soon effaced, for the Egyptians, though every where successful, gained no acquisition of territory by the expedition.

23. Seleucus had not only to contend with the Egyptians, but also with the Gauls, headed by his rebellious brother Hierax. In the first engagement Hierax nearly lost his life by obtaining a victory; for the Gauls, on the false report of Seleucus's death, resolved to murder Hierax as the best means of securing the kingdom of Syria for themselves; and Hierax was obliged to pay a large ransom for his own life to his own soldiers. Hierax then advanced into Babylonia, followed by Seleucus, who hovered over his rear, and harassed his march. 24. The Macedonians who had settled in Upper Asia, and the Babylonian Jews, terrified at the progress of the Barbarians, joined the army of Seleucus, and their united forces defeated the Gauls in a decisive engagement, and almost annihilated them in the pursuit. Hierax fled to the Egyptian court, but was thrown into prison by Ptolemy, where he languished thirteen years, and only escaped to perish by the hands of robbers in the Syrian desert.

25. Seleucus Callinicus was succeeded by Ceraunus, who, after a short and important reign, left the kingdom B.C. to Antiochus III. surnamed the Great. 26. In the beginning of his reign, he was brought into great dangers by the treachery of his prime minister, Hermeias. Deceived by the artifices of this person, Antiochus quarrelled with Achæus, to whose fidelity he in a great measure owed his crown, and set Molon and Alexander, the brothers of Hermeias, over the important provinces of Media and Persia. 27. Taking advantage of the war between Egypt and Syria, Molon raised the standard of revolt in Media, and was joined by his brother Alexander. The royal generals sent against them were defeated, and, spite of the remonstrances of Hermeias, Antiochus resolved to take the field in person. When the armies were about to engage, the rebel forces, by an almost instinctive movement, threw down their arms, and submitted themselves to their youthful sovereign. Molon and Alexander escaped

a public execution by suicide, and Hermeias expiated his complicated treasons on the scaffold.

28. During the absence of Antiochus, Achæus, who had in some measure been forced into rebellion, had strengthened himself in Lesser Asia, and Ptolemy Philopater was becoming formidable on the southern frontier. 29. The province of Cœle-Syria was equally desirable to the B.C. Seleucidæ and the Ptolemies, as it contained many 218. strong positions, and secured the dominions of its possessor. On his return from Persia, Antiochus obtained this important province by the treachery of Theodotus, the Egyptian governor. Ptolemy Philopater advanced with a large army to regain this valuable frontier. 30. While the armies lay encamped opposite each other, Theodotus entered the Egyptian camp in disguise, and made a base attempt to assassinate his former sovereign; in his haste he slew the royal physician instead of the king, and thus committed an atrocious crime in vain.

31. The Egyptians, enraged at this meditated treachery, insisted on being led immediately to battle. The two armies met at Raphia, a village near Gaza. Antiochus broke the wing to which he was opposed, and hurried away by youthful ardour, chased it from the field. Ptolemy took advantage of his rival's impetuosity to bring down his phalanx on the enemy's exposed line, and when Antioch returned from his wild pursuit, he found the battle irretrievably lost. This decisive engagement led to a peace, by which the provinces of Cœle-Syria and Palestine were ceded to the Egyptians. 32. This defeat was soon after compensated by the capture of Achæus, who, having unfortunately provoked the kings of the states in Lesser Asia, was besieged by Antiochus and Attalus king of Pergamus, in Sardis, and betrayed to his besiegers.

33. After being freed from the dangers of this B.C. war, Antiochus turned his attention to the secu- 214. rity of Upper Asia, and by his numerous victories over the

Bactrians and Parthians, acquired the surname of *Great*. But to obtain the province *Cœle-Syria*, was the great object of his ambition, and he earnestly watched for a favourable opportunity of wresting it from the Egyptians.

B.C. 34. The death of Ptolemy Philopater, and the accession of his infant son seemed to be the favourable moment, and he entered into an alliance with Philip of Macedon, to wrest the Egyptian sceptre from the Ptolemies. 35. Antiochus defeated Scopas, the Egyptian governor of *Cœle-Syria*, at Mount Panicus, and soon made himself master both of that province and Palestine; but he was prevented from pursuing his conquests by the interference of Attalus, the Rhodians, and the Romans.

36. The ambition of Antiochus, checked in this direction, sought conquests in another. As the descendant of Seleucus he had claims on Asia Minor, Thrace, and several Grecian states, and he resolved to make an effort for their subjugation; while his generals besieged Smyrna and Lampsacus, he seized on the Thracian Chersonese, and prepared to invade the northern parts of Greece.

B.C. 196. 37. In the midst of his preparations the Isthmian Games were celebrated at Corinth, and attended by deputies from all the states who claimed an influence in the affairs of Greece. The Roman ambassadors were present on the occasion: after having heard the charges brought against Antiochus by the states whom his ambition threatened, they forbade him, in the name of the republic, to pursue his career of conquest; a prohibition which the haughty Syrian monarch heard with disdain. From this time forward the affairs of Syria are identified with Roman history, and the reader will find the continuation in the sixteenth chapter of Pinnock's Roman History.

38. When the Seleucidæ lost the more remote provinces of Upper Asia, the Greeks who had been settled there by Alexander were naturally disinclined to unite with their former enemies, and accordingly the greater part of them

joined in founding a Greek kingdom in the remote regions of Bactria. Traces of this event are still to be found in the histories and traditions of the East, but the accounts are so brief and uncertain, that it is impossible to determine how long the Bactrian kingdom continued to exist. 39. But though we cannot discover the time, we know the means of its destruction. It fell a prey to a tribe of wandering Tartars, or Scythians, who, at the same time, were devastating China; the fierce resistance of the Bactrians so provoked their barbarous enemies, that they gave no quarter, and thus this Greek colony appears to have been exterminated.

Questions.

1. Did the defeat at Ipsus ruin Demetrius?
2. How did he increase his power?
3. What change of fortune did he experience?
4. What became of Lysimachus?
5. By whom was Seleucus accompanied in his expedition to Macedon?
6. By whom was Seleucus murdered?
7. Did any states at this time assert their independence?
8. How was Ptolemy Ceraunus slain?
9. Where did the Gauls settle?
10. By whom was Ptolemy succeeded in Macedon?
11. What league was formed about this time?
12. Why was Antiochus called Soter?
13. By whom was he defeated?
14. How did he become involved in a war with Egypt?
15. What was his success in this war?
16. By whom was he slain?
17. How did Antiochus II. commence his reign?
18. Why was he compelled to make peace with Egypt?
19. What were the conditions of the treaty?
20. To what crimes did this marriage give rise?
21. What young monarchs ascended their respective thrones at the same time?
22. Was there any extraordinary expedition undertaken in this war?
23. With what other enemy had Seleucus to contend?
24. What became of Hierax?

25. To whom did the Syrian crown next devolve ?
26. By whose treachery was Antiochus exposed to great danger ?
27. How was this rebellion terminated ?
28. What enemies appeared against Antiochus in Western Asia ?
29. How did Antiochus obtain possession of Cœle-Syria ?
30. What act of treachery did Theodotus attempt ?
31. In what decisive engagement was Antiochus defeated ?
32. What victory did he obtain soon after ?
33. Why was he called the Great ?
34. What opportunity did he take of renewing the war with Egypt ?
35. By whose interference was he checked ?
36. Where did he next make an effort ?
37. What remarkable event occurred at the Isthmian Games ?
38. What Greek kingdom was founded in Upper Asia ?
39. How was it destroyed ?

CHAPTER IX.

EGYPT UNDER THE PTOLEMIES.

Since of the various ills that can distress
 Confederate councils and prevent success,
 Discord is chief, where'er the fury sways,
 The part she severs and the whole betrays.

EPIGONIAD.

1. IN the preceding chapter we have mentioned the wars that took place between the Ptolemies and the Seleucidæ: events belonging equally to the history of Egypt and Syria. We must now take a view of the internal state of Egypt and see the effect produced by the new dynasty. The first B.C. Ptolemy possessed more political wisdom than any
 323. of Alexander's generals. While but a Satrap he laboured with great success to conciliate the affections of the people whom he governed, and to promote a spirit of industry and commercial enterprize in the nation. 2. During the wars that followed the death of Alexander, he secured the internal tranquillity of Egypt by removing the

seat of war to a distance from his frontiers ; Egypt thus became a safe retreat for those whom the violence of war compelled to quit their country, and literary men came from all quarters to Alexandria, to enjoy that tranquillity which their pursuits required, and which could then be enjoyed in Alexandria alone. 3. Among those who thus sought refuge in the court of Ptolemy was the celebrated Demetrius Phalèreus, who had been governor of Athens. 4. By his advice Ptolemy founded the library of Alexandria, whose fame has for nearly a thousand years survived its existence. The schools established at Alexandria made the most rapid improvements in the sciences. 5. The mathematical and physical sciences especially were cultivated with equal ardour and success, Euclid and Archimedes were both pupils in the Alexandrian school, and succeeding ages have not produced any names of greater importance in the history of geometry and mechanical philosophy. 6. The first great improvements in the study of medicine were made in Egypt under the reign of Ptolemy, for the Alexandrian philosophers were the first who laid aside idle conjectures, and attempted to discover the structure of the human frame, in the only way it can be discovered, by dissection. 7. In polite literature Alexandria seems rather to have been a school of criticism than of original composition, we meet, indeed, the names of a few poets, but their works have long since perished, and the few specimens that survive show that the loss is not much to be regretted. A striking peculiarity in the court of Ptolemy was the liberality with which he received philosophers of every sect : with whatever opinions they were accompanied genius and learning always received a ready welcome at Alexandria.

8. Ptolemy Philadelphus, who had been crowned B.C. in his father's life time, succeeded Ptolemy Soter. 284.

The commencement of his reign is stained by the murder of *Demetrius Phalereus*, but with this exception his reign

appears to have been as beneficial as any recorded in the Egyptian annals. 9. He was the richest monarch of the time ; the great natural resources of Egypt had been developed in the reign of his father, and commercial intercourse carried on with the Arabians and the Africans. 10. Philadelphus directed his attention to the India trade, which he so enlarged that Alexandria became the port whence the productions of the remote East were supplied to the several nations on the shores of the Mediterranean. To facilitate this branch of commerce he cut a canal between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean. But it is easier to change the force of nature than the inveterate habits of man, the caravans still continued to pass through the Ethiopian deserts, and the canal lay neglected.

11. During this and the preceding reign several colonies of the Jews came and settled in Alexandria. For their use the Hebrew Scriptures were translated into Greek, this version is called the Septuagint, and continues to be valued at the present day as one of the most important works in sacred literature.

12. The expedition of Ptolemy Evergetes into Upper Asia has been mentioned in a former chapter. After his return from Asia he invaded Abyssinia, and memorials of his conquests still remain, for Bruce the celebrated traveller assures us that he saw the name of Ptolemy inscribed on the footstool of the throne used at the coronation of the Abyssinian monarchs. 13. Evergetes was the last of the Ptolemies who gained the affection of his subjects by prudence and moderation, and whose reputation for valour and wisdom commanded the respect, even of his enemies. He was poisoned by his son in the twenty-sixth year of his reign.

B.C. 14. Ptolemy, ironically surnamed Philopater, or

221. a lover of his father, ascended the throne which he had obtained by crime. 15. His reign was distinguished by every species of luxury, profligacy, and cruelty. On

his return from a successful expedition against the Syrians, he resolved to offer sacrifices in the temple of Jerusalem, but being prevented from entering into the Holy of Holies, he conceived a violent enmity against the whole Jewish nation. 16. When he came back to Alexandria he had all the Jews then in the city enclosed in an amphitheatre, and sent in elephants, stimulated to fury by wine, to trample and destroy them; the generous animals, guided by some supernatural instinct, turned their fury not on those they had been sent to destroy, but on the Egyptian spectators. This event so terrified Ptolemy that he restored the Jews to his favour, and ever after treated them with kindness. 17. Ptolemy was the first Egyptian monarch who entered into alliance with Rome. He died at an early age, leaving the crown to his infant son.

18. Ptolemy the Fifth was a child at his father's B.C. death, but through the prudence of the regent, 204.

Aristomenes, his minority was a scene of uninterrupted prosperity. On attaining his fourteenth year he ascended the throne, and took the surname *Epiphanes*, or Illustrious. He trod in the steps of his father, and filled all Egypt with slaughter. 19. Indeed from this time forward the annals of Egypt are one bloody tissue of the fiercest civil wars and most atrocious crimes, totally devoid of interest until the invasion of Egypt by Cæsar, in the reign of the B.C. thirteenth Ptolemy, when they become identified 47. with Roman history.—See Pinnock's Rome, chap. xxi.

Questions.

1. Who appears to have been the wisest of Alexander's successors?
2. How did he secure the tranquillity of Egypt?
3. What remarkable author took refuge in his court?
4. Did Ptolemy found any library?
5. What sciences were successfully cultivated in Alexandria?
6. Why did the science of medicine flourish there?
7. In what department of polite literature were the Alexandrians distinguished?

8. What crimes stained the beginning of Ptolemy's reign?
9. Why was he the richest monarch of his time?
10. To what branch of trade did he most particularly direct his attention?
11. Why was the Septuagint version of the Scriptures undertaken?
12. Are there any proofs that Ptolemy invaded Abyssinia?
13. What was the character and death of Ptolemy?
14. Why was the third Ptolemy called Philopater?
15. What was his character?
16. How did he treat the Jews?
17. Into what novel alliance did he enter?
18. What line of conduct did he pursue?
19. What is the general character of the subsequent annals of Egypt?

CHAPTER X.

THE GRECIAN COLONIES IN SICILY AND ITALY.

What art thou, grandeur! with thy boastful train
 Of pompous lies, and boastful promises?
 Where are they now, and what's their mighty sum?
 All—all are vanish'd.

JAGO.

1. THE causes that compelled many of the Grecian princes who had fought at Troy to become exiles, have been mentioned in a previous chapter; many of them settled on the south and east side of Italy, where they founded B.C. several small principalities. 2. The Greek colonies in Asia were unable to resist the growing power of Persia; the greater part purchased safety by submission, but a very large proportion resolved to seek other countries where their liberties might be preserved. They accordingly quitted Asia, and established themselves in different places along the western shores of the Mediterranean. 3. Of these the Phocæans were the most re-

markable. On the approach of the Persian army they solicited a truce for one day from the hostile general; this was readily granted; and in this brief interval they embarked, on board a fleet that had been previously prepared, all their moveable property, with their wives and children, so that when the Persians advanced the next morning, they took possession only of desolated dwellings and empty walls.

4. The Phocæan fleet, consisting of more than two hundred sail, made for the island of Chios, where they hoped to be secure from the Persian arms; but the Chians, influenced by a spirit of commercial jealousy, refused them admittance. 5. On this they resolved on a much longer voyage, and determined to proceed to the island of Corsica, where they already had a small colony settled. 6. Coasting by night near the harbour of their beloved city, some more enterprising than the rest suddenly landed, surprised the Persian garrison, and put every man to the sword. After applauding this memorable act of revenge, the whole fleet bound themselves by mutual oaths never to return to Phocæa until a burning ball of iron, which they threw into the sea, should emerge unextinguished. A few violated this oath, returned again to their city, and threw the blame of the massacre on the rest, but the best and bravest of the Phocæans safely arrived in Corsica. 7. The Carthaginians, who were just commencing their career of greatness, had colonized Corsica; they looked upon the Phocæans as intruders and dangerous rivals, and prepared to oppose them with vigour. 8. The Tuscans, from the same motives, embraced the same design, and the most ancient naval engagement, distinctly recorded in history, was fought in the Sardinian Sea, between the Phocæans, with sixty sail on the one side, against the Tuscans and Carthaginians, with double that number on the other. 9. The Greeks had the whole glory of the engagement; they destroyed forty of the

enemies' ships, and compelled the rest to fly. 10. Be the smallness of their numbers, greatly diminished by their desperate efforts in defence of the honour of their nation against a superior force, obliged them to abandon the project of settling in Corsica. Part settled at Vela, in the south of Italy, the remainder founded Marseille, which soon became one of the most flourishing commercial cities of antiquity.

11. In addition to these exiles, several colonies were sent out by the different states of Greece. Corinth established a powerful interest in Sicily, by founding the cities of Syracuse, Agras, and Camarina. The Rhodians built Gela and Agrigentum; and, as both the Rhodians and Corinthians were of the Doric race, the Dorians, by means of these establishments, always maintained an ascendancy in Sicily.

12. The Æolic colonies from Achæa were masters of the Italian shore; their chief cities were Crotone and Sybaris, but there were several others subordinate to these; among the rest Pæstum, whose splendid and massive ruins attest at this day the ancient magnificence of the Italo-Grecian states. It is, indeed, strange that Calabria, now the most desolate and barbarous part of Italy, should, about five centuries before Christ, have contained several warlike and civilized communities, whose commerce spread over the entire south of Europe, and whose riches compete with those possessed by the most favoured trading cities of modern times.

13. The strange causes that led to the foundation of Tarentum are mentioned in the second chapter of Pinnock's Grecian History. The Ionic colonies, which remain to be mentioned; came principally from Chalcis in Eubœa; their chief colonies were Cumæ in Italy, and Catania in Sicily. It is remarkable that the Ionic colonies, which were far the most powerful in Asia, were the weakest and least influential in the west of Europe. 14. From the number of

Greek colonies that had settled in the south of Italy, it received the name of Magna Græcia; and, as it surpassed Greece in wealth, so it did in luxury, and consequently fell earlier into decay.

15. At so early a period as the commencement of the sixth century before Christ, the states of Magna Græcia, and especially Sybaris, had become utterly depraved by luxury and licentiousness. The necessary consequence of utter ruin would have followed but for the appearance of one man, who effected the greatest and most beneficial revolution recorded in history—that man was Pythagoras.

16. The life of Pythagoras forms an important B.C. and interesting part of the history of the human 600. mind; for from his appearance in the world the origin of the mental and ethical sciences is dated. 17. He was born in the island of Samos, and was distinguished in early youth by his ardent attachment to literature and science. 18. The discoveries made by Thales, the Milesian, in astronomy, excited his emulation, and in his eighteenth year he set out on a tour in search of knowledge. 19. Passing over to the continent of Greece he obtained the prize of wrestling at the Olympic games; thence he proceeded to Egypt, the source from which Grecian philosophy confessedly was derived, and after a long residence in that country he travelled through a great part of the East. He is said to have penetrated as far as India.

20. On his return from the East, Pythagoras found his native country subjected to the tyranny of Polycrates; he therefore bade an eternal adieu to Samos, and passing over to Greece, again assisted at the Olympic games. 21. Here he was saluted with the title of Sophist, then an honourable title, signifying *a wise man*, but he preferred the humbler name philosopher, which means *a lover of wisdom*. From Olympia he proceeded to Sparta, and prepared himself by studying the laws of Lycurgus,

for the important office of legislator, which he was destined to assume.

B.C. 22. Pythagoras arrived at Crotona, the capital 560. of the Italo-Grecian states, in the fortieth year of his age. 23. His fame had preceded him, and the purity of his life, the piety of his habits, and the extent of his knowledge, contributed to increase the influence of his character. A spacious edifice was erected for the philosopher to lecture in; the magistrates and nobles pided themselves on being his pupils; and such was the effect of his lessons, that the Crotonians, from being the most dissolute, soon became the most virtuous in Greece. 24. Nor was this all, the disciples of Pythagoras, by their superior skill and knowledge, acquired possession of the reins of government in the Greek states of Italy, Sicily, and the *Ægean* islands; and as they seem, like the *Jesuits*, to have been bound together by a secret confederacy, they every where established the supremacy of their sect.

25. The city of Sybaris had always contemptuously rejected the Pythagorean institutions: their city was beautifully situated at the confluence of the two streams Sybaris and Crathis, and was equally distinguished for the riches and effeminacy of its inhabitants. Mutual jealousies stirred up a war between them and their reformed neigh-

B.C. bours. 26. The Crotonians, headed by Milo*, a 509. disciple of Pythagoras, defeated the Sybarites in a

* Milo was celebrated for his great strength and for the number of victories he obtained at the Olympic games. He is said to have killed a bull with a blow of his fist, and to have carried it through the entire course. When the pillar which supported the lecture-room of Pythagoras gave way, Milo alone supported the entire building, and gave the philosopher and his audience time to escape. In his old age he attempted to rend an oak, but the tree, when half torn, re-united by a sudden spring, and Milo's hands were caught in the cleft. Being alone, and unable to disentangle himself, he fell an easy prey to the wild beast by which the place was infested.

decisive engagement, and totally destroyed their city. Five times the Sybarites attempted to rebuild the town, but the jealousy of the Crotonians always interfered. Sybaris was never again restored, and a little town named Thurium was built from its ruins.

27. But the destruction of Sybaris was almost alike fatal to Crotona. The inferior ranks of men in that city, intoxicated with prosperity, and instigated by Cylon, whom his dissolute habits and turbulent manners had excluded from the order of Pythagoras, demanded an equal partition of the conquered lands; when this was refused they broke out into open rebellion, suddenly attacked the magistrates in the Senate-house, murdered several, and compelled the rest to seek safety in flight. Pythagoras removed from Crotona to Metapontum, where he died in extreme old age. His disciples, scattered over Sicily and Italy, prepared the different states to meet and surmount a danger greater than any by which they had been hitherto threatened.

28. The alliance between Xerxes and the Carthaginians induced the latter to send an immense armament against the western Greeks. The history of its decisive defeat has been already recorded in the chapter on the history of the Carthaginians, and to the same part of the work the reader is referred for an account of the wars between that people and the Sicilian states.

29. The citizens of Crotona had soon reason to lament their insurrection against their magistrates, and their forsaking the discipline of Pythagoras. The Locrians and Rhegians ventured to dispute their supremacy in Magna Græcia, and with only 15,000 men defeated the Crotonian army, which amounted to more than 120,000. The other Greek cities, which are said to have imitated the fatal example of Crotona, were harassed by wars among themselves, or against their barbarous neighbours. 30. In consequence of these misfortunes the Pythagoreans again

recovered their credit; and about sixty years after the death of their great founder, Zaleucus, in Locri, and Charondas, in Thurium, re-established the Pythagorean institutions. 31. These laws were, however, too strict for the times; in less than forty years a new persecution entirely drove the Pythagoreans from Italy, and completed the confusion and misery of that once happy country.

32. The Locrians, Rhegians, and Tarentines became B.C. then the leading states, but their history is devoid of interest, until the league between Pyrrhus and the Tarentines led to a war with the Romans, (see Finck's Rome, Chapter XIII., section 2.) which eventually subjected the south of Italy to the Roman power. The different states, however, preserved their own laws and local jurisdiction to a late period of the empire.

Questions.

1. What Greeks appear to have been the first settlers on the west coast of Italy?
2. Why were they joined by several exiles from Asia Minor?
3. How did the Phocæans deceive the Persians?
4. Whither did they first go?
5. What was their next resolution?
6. How were they revenged on the Persians?
7. By whom were they opposed in Sardinia?
8. Why is the battle between the Carthaginians and Phocæans remarkable?
9. Which gained the victory?
10. Whither did the Phocæans go?
11. How did the Dorian colonies acquire a superiority in Sicily?
12. Where did the Æolic colonies flourish?
13. Did the Ionians send out any colonies?
14. Why was the south of Italy called Magna Græcia?
15. By whom were they rescued from the evils of licentiousness?
16. Why is the life of Pythagoras a remarkable era?
17. Where was he born?
18. How was he excited to study?
19. Whither did he travel?
20. Why did he leave Samos?

21. In what manner was he received at the Olympic games?
22. When did Pythagoras arrive at Crotona?
23. How was he received there?
24. Did the influence of his doctrines extend further?
25. Did any city reject the Pythagorean discipline?
26. In what war was it unfortunate?
27. Did Crotona gain by the destruction of Sybaris?
28. When did the Carthaginians wage war with the Greek colonies?
29. By what calamities were the people of Crotona overtaken?
30. Were there any legislators in Magna Græcia besides Pythagoras?
31. How were the Pythagoreans subsequently treated?
32. What states afterwards took the lead in Magna Græcia?

CHAPTER XI.

THE LIFE OF PYRRHUS.

The powers above, for purposes unknown,
Oft raise the fall'n, and bring the lofty down;
Elude the vigilance of all our care,
Our surest hopes deceive and mock despair.

EPIGONIAD.

THE life of this celebrated sovereign furnishes a convenient link of connection between several detached portions of this work and the Roman history. In the course of his varied life he was engaged in wars with the successors of Alexander, the Romans, and the Carthaginians, and thus brings these three histories into mutual contact. Never was there a monarch whose life presented so many and such rapid vicissitudes of fortune; his most brilliant successes are found to occur at moments when his destruction appeared inevitable, and scarcely did fortune place power in his hands, when his own imprudence, or some unforeseen chance again reduced him to danger and distress.

Æacidas, king of Epirus, was dethroned by his near relative Neoptolemus, and all his children but Pyrrhus, then an infant, murdered. Pyrrhus was car-

ried by his mother to the court of Glaucias, king of Illyria, and the sight of the boy as he clasped with suppliant hands the household gods and domestic altar, so affected the Illyrian monarch that he vowed to defend his life against all adversaries. Cassander, the usurper of the Macedonian throne, offered two hundred talents for the murder of the infant, but Glaucias indignantly spurned the offer, and educated Pyrrhus as his own son.

At the early age of twelve, Pyrrhus, through the influence of Glaucias, was elevated to the throne of Epirus. But five years after the people broke out into a new rebellion, expelled Pyrrhus, and raised Neoptolemus to the throne. Demetrius Poliorcetes had married Deidamia, the sister of Pyrrhus, and to his protection the youthful exile trusted himself. Pyrrhus joined Demetrius a little before the fatal fight at Ipsus, and in that battle exhibited proofs of the great personal courage and prowess for which he was so remarkably distinguished. During the series of misfortunes which Demetrius underwent after his father's death, Pyrrhus steadily adhered to his cause, and even went to Egypt as a hostage for his patron. The talents of Pyrrhus soon made him conspicuous at the Egyptian court; Ptolemy and Berenice became so much attached to him that they gave him their daughter Antigone in marriage, and supplied him with means of asserting his claim to the Epirote crown.

B.C. 297. When Pyrrhus returned to Epirus, his fickle subjects received him with open arms, but he did not think it advisable to put his crown to the hazard of a battle; he entered into a treaty with Neoptolemus, by which it was stipulated that they should reign conjointly in Epirus. This treaty, like all similar agreements, was not long observed; Neoptolemus began to take measures for the repossession of all Epirus, and Pyrrhus having invited his rival to a banquet, basely procured his assassination.

On the death of Cassander a civil war broke out B.C. 295. among his children ; Pyrrhus warmly supported the claims of Alexander in hopes to obtain new additions to his dominions, but his expectations were apparently frustrated, when that prince was murdered by Demetrius. This disappointment completely dissolved the friendship between Pyrrhus and Demetrius, which the death of Deidamia had previously shaken. A war broke out between the rival adventurers, and both determined to decide their contests by the sword. By some strange chance the armies missed each other, but Pyrrhus advancing into Ætolia, surprised Pantauchus, to whom Demetrius had entrusted that province, and almost annihilated his army. The valour of Pyrrhus was so conspicuous in this engagement that his soldiers attributed their success to his personal exertions alone, and hailed him as " the eagle that led to victory." To this flattery he modestly replied, that, " if he were the eagle, they had lent the wings by which he was enabled to soar."

This victory was followed by a brief truce, which seemed only a breathing time to the combatants. The B.C. 289. war broke out again ; but when Demetrius was advancing to meet his adversary, he was suddenly deserted by his entire army, and Pyrrhus obtained possession of Macedon without a blow. A new enemy appeared against him in the person of Lysimachus, and with him he was compelled to divide his new acquisition. Lysima- B.C. 286. chus, not contented with this, laid claim to all Macedon, the Macedonian soldiers refused to fight against a general of Alexander, and Pyrrhus lost Macedon exactly in the same manner and with the same rapidity that he had acquired it three years before.

The Tarentines, by an atrocious act of piracy, B.C. 281. had provoked the vengeance of Rome. Unable to protect themselves from the threatened punishment, they applied to Pyrrhus for assistance, and he, eager to found

an empire in the West, passed over into Italy. The history of his campaigns there will be found in Pinnock's *Rom.* Chapter XIII., and the account of his equally vain expedition into Sicily in a preceding chapter.

•B.C. After the return of Pyrrhus from his Italian and

274. Sicilian campaigns, he took into his pay one of the wandering tribes of Gauls by whom Greece was then devastated, and as his own dominions were not rich enough to support such a numerous army, he resolved on the invasion of Macedon. His success exceeded his expectations, the army of Antigonus deserted at his approach, and thus he a second time, by an almost bloodless contest, obtained complete possession of Macedon, except a few cities on the sea-coast that still adhered to Antigonus. B.

B.C. instead of endeavouring to consolidate the dominion

272. that he had thus unexpectedly obtained, Pyrrhus advanced through the Peloponnesus against Sparta, induced by the solicitations of Cleonymus, who was initiated at his exclusion from the throne by one king, Areus; and the debauching of his wife by the other, Acrotatus. Pyrrhus came before Sparta in the evening, and had he taken advantage of the terror occasioned by his arrival, would probably have been completely successful, but believing success certain, he deferred his attack to the following morning. During the night the Spartans cut a deep trench in front of the city, and defended its flanks by sinking waggons in the earth up to their axle-trees. When Pyrrhus advanced to the attack the next morning, he found the trench an insuperable obstacle, his soldiers slipping in the fresh-turned up earth, were exposed to the attacks of the enemy without being able to defend themselves; while his son Ptolemy, who had been sent with a party of Gauls to force the waggons and turn the enemies' flank, got entangled in the difficulties of the ground, and being attacked by Acrotatus in the midst of the confusion was compelled to retreat.

This defeat forced Pyrrhus to resign all hopes of capturing Sparta by assault, and immediately after, the arrival of a strong auxiliary force sent by Antigonus from Corinth, and a body of Cretans under the command of king Areus, completely secured Sparta from his future attacks.

While Pyrrhus was preparing to renew his efforts against Sparta, an invitation from Aristeus called him away to another part of the peninsula. Antigonus had taken possession of the mountains near Nauplia between Argos and Corinth; and Aristeus, dreading his influence, offered to put Pyrrhus in possession of Argos. Pyrrhus broke up his camp and proceeded on this new expedition, whose novelty appears to have been its principal recommendation. The Spartans hung on his rear, and attacked the division commanded by Ptolemy, which was routed and its leader slain. Pyrrhus, however, avenged his son's death by a defeat of the Spartans, so total and complete that they did not dare to make any fresh attack during his march.

When Pyrrhus arrived at Nauplia, he found the army of Antigonus so strongly posted that he did not dare to attack them; he however sent a personal challenge to Antigonus couched in the most abusive terms, which that monarch had the good sense to decline. The citizens of Argos, alarmed at the presence of two such mighty armies, both of whom appeared equally dangerous to their liberties, sent an embassy requesting them to retire; Pyrrhus promised compliance, but in the night advanced towards Argos, where Aristeus betrayed one of the gates to his army. When the elephants came up to this gate it was found too narrow to admit them, and the noise made in the attempt to enlarge it, alarmed the Argives, and made them acquainted with their danger. They immediately garrisoned the citadel Aspis, and sent a pressing message both to Antigonus and Areus to hasten to their assistance. Pyrrhus had in the mean time entered the town in another

direction, and hearing the shouts of the Gauls, who were attacked while enlarging the gate, endeavoured to come to their assistance. But the darkness of the night and the narrowness of the streets were obstacles not to be overcome, and Pyrrhus was compelled to wait the return of day-light. The dawn of morning shewed him all the dangers of his situation: the citadel was garrisoned by the citizens, the auxiliary forces of Antigonus had come up, and the Argives had blockaded their streets. Pyrrhus still determined to persevere, but every step increased his embarrassment, his cavalry could not act in the narrow streets, and his elephants became totally unmanageable. One of them, whose driver had been killed, became infuriated, and running madly up and down, threw a great part of the Epirote soldiers into irremediable disorder. Pyrrhus sent a message to his son Helenus, ordering him to prepare a way for retreat by throwing down the wall; but in the agitation of the moment the message was mistaken; Helenus advanced with his forces into the city, where numbers only added to the confusion. At this moment Pyrrhus, while making a vigorous effort to open a passage, encountered an Argive soldier, whom he was preparing to cut down; when the mother of the Argive, who witnessed her son's danger from the roof of an adjoining house, threw a tile which struck Pyrrhus on the head and dismounted him. Zopyrus, a Macedonian officer, rushed up and struck off his head, which he presented to Alcioneus, the son of Antigonus, to be carried to his father.

When Alcioneus brought the head to Antigonus, that generous monarch, far from showing any signs of exultation, covered his head with his robe and burst into tears. Remembering the bloody deaths of his father and grandfather, he could not but be affected by this new instance of the instability of fortune. He censured his son for his indecent joy, and when Alcioneus subsequently presented

Helenus, the son of Pyrrhus, to him in a mean dress, he said, "this, my son, is better than the beginning, but remove that garment, which is more disgraceful to the victors than the vanquished." Antigonus then ordered Helenus to be treated in a manner worthy of his rank, and honored the remains of Pyrrhus with a magnificent funeral.

Pyrrhus was the last of the Greeks who distinguished himself by foreign conquests. Before his reign the Epirotes were looked on as worthless barbarians, scarcely fit to be employed as mercenaries; but from the accession of Pyrrhus to the subjugation of the Greeks by the Romans, Epirus was a leading and distinguished state. In the war of independance, the Epirotes were the most strenuous supporters of the cause of Grecian freedom, and did not receive the yoke until their armies were almost annihilated, and their country made a desert. Even then, many retired to the mountain fastnesses of Epirus, and maintained a partial independance to the latest ages of the empire. From them were descended the mountaineers of Suli, who never submitted to the Turkish yoke, but who were barbarously exterminated by the treachery of Ali Pacha at the commencement of the present century.

PART III.

CHAPTER I.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

Crowded around the Baron's hall,
Were mail-clad knight and naked thrall,
Bound by the tenure of their land
To serve their chief with heart and hand.

LEESON.

1. THE barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire, and settled themselves in its finest provinces, seem not to have followed any regular plan in the distribution of the conquered lands. The Franks and Normans appear to have divided them into several portions, some of which were reserved to support the crown, and were called *fiscal*, others were bestowed in full property on the companions of the conquering monarch and were named *allodia*. 2. Lands held by allodial tenure were lands subject to no rent, charge, or service, except whatever taxes were required for the ordinary expences of government.

3. It is not very easy to trace all the causes that led to the change of allodial into feudal tenure ; the two following appear to have been the principal : the king usually granted the profit of the fiscal lands as benefices to some of the great officers of his court ; those who were proprietors by beneficiary investiture, were obliged to give personal service in defence of the kingdom when called on, and a breach of this condition led to the immediate forfeiture of the land. 4. But benefices, though so far like *fiefs*, were different in one important respect ; they were

not hereditary, but on the death of every possessor reverted to the fisc, or in other words, were restored to the crown.

5. The titles of nobility, before and during the reign of Charlemagne, were not mere names of honour, but expressed some functions of the state that should be performed by the possessor. The duke was a general in the army; the marquis, or margrave, was entrusted with the care of the *marches*, or frontiers; and the counts were governors of small provinces, called counties: the barons were inferior in dignity to the others, but they too exercised some local jurisdiction in smaller districts. 6. But during the reigns of the inglorious successors of Charlemagne, the governors of provinces successfully laboured to weaken the authority of the sovereign, and to secure for themselves almost a perfect independence. They claimed all the privileges of royalty in their respective districts, acknowledging, indeed, the king's nominal superiority over the entire kingdom, and holding themselves bound to perform military service when called upon.

7. In consequence of this usurpation, nobility and benefices became hereditary nearly at the same time. The nobility found it necessary to secure themselves from mutual jealousy and avarice; this could only be obtained by their having bands of armed and faithful followers, who would be ready at any time to defend the possessions of their lord by force of arms. For this purpose they let out the beneficiary lands to tenants holding under them, who were bound to the personal service of the proprietor, and received from him protection in turn.

8. The monarchs were by this change deprived of the greater part of their power, and the possessors of allodial lands lost all security; unconnected with government and with each other, they were exposed to every insult which the power and rapacity of the neighbouring barons dictated; there was no law by which they could obtain redress, and they were too weak to attempt revenge. 9. To

secure protection they changed their tenure of property from allodial to feudal; either by actually surrendering their lands to a neighbouring nobleman, and receiving again on the condition of performing military service, or by confessing that they held it by a previous grant, and thus by a legal fiction establishing themselves as his vassals.

10. Fiefs are lands held on condition of performing military service for the proprietor when called on, and receiving protection from him in turn; and lands obtained on these conditions were said to be held by feudal tenure.

11. During the tenth century, this system was spread over France and Germany; in the early part of the eleventh it was introduced into England by William the Norman Conqueror.

12. A fief, or rather a fiefment, was a mutual contract: the proprietor gave land, and promised to secure its possession; the tenant, on the other hand, promised obedience to his lord, and was bound to serve him in all wars, even against their mutual sovereign. The ceremonies conferring a fief were, homage, fealty, and investiture.

13. † Homage was thus performed: the person who was about to become a vassal, came before the proprietor with his head uncovered, and without sword, belt, or spurs; kneeling down before his lord, he placed both his hands

* This was not the case in England; William the Conqueror introduced, in this country, a clause into the vassal's oath, expressly reserving his allegiance to his sovereign.

† The form of homage is thus given in Littleton's Tenures: "When the tenant shall make homage to his lord, he shall be ungirt, and his head uncovered; and his lord shall sit, and the tenant shall kneel before him on both his knees, and hold his hands jointly together between the hands of his lord, and shall say thus: "*I become your man from this day forward of life and limb, and of earthly worship, and unto you shall be true and faithful, and bear to you faith for the tenements that I claim to hold of you, saving the faith that I owe unto our sovereign lord the king;*" and then the lord so sitting shall kiss him.

between the hands of the lord, and took an oath to be faithful, in consideration of the land held under him.

14. * Fealty, or fidelity, was the oath taken by the vassal: the terms were usually, that "he would serve his liege lord with life, limb, and worldly honour, faithfully and loyally, so long as he retained possession of the fief.

15. Investiture was the form of giving the vassal possession of the ground, and was either proper or improper. Investiture proper was an actual giving of possession, by taking the vassal to the very ground, and there making it over to him before witnesses; this, in the English law, is called *livery of seisin*. Investiture improper was symbolic, and consisted in giving the vassal a green sod, a wand, or a branch of a tree, as a representation of the property conveyed to him.

16. The obligations of a vassal were, to keep his lord's counsel secret; to inform him of all plots against the life or honour of himself and family; to abstain from any thing that might injure him in person, property, or renown; and to serve him personally in war for a specified period. 17. The usual terms of feudal service was forty days; men over sixty, women, and ecclesiastics, were obliged to find substitutes: a breach of any of these conditions was punished by forfeiture of the fief.

* The following is Littleton's account of fealty: "When a freeholder doth fealty to his lord, he shall hold his right hand upon a book, and say thus: *Know ye this, my lord, that I shall be faithful and true unto you, and faith to you shall bear for the lands which I claim to hold of you; and that I shall lawfully do to you the customs and services which I ought to do, at the terms assigned; so help me God and his saints*; and he shall kiss the book; but he shall not kneel when he maketh his fealty, nor shall make such humble reverence as is aforesaid in homage." From this it appears that tenure by homage was the more honourable, and tenure by fealty the more sacred compact. Homage could only be done to the suzerain; fealty might be done before his deputy. Finally, none but free men could do homage; but the villeins, or serfs, might be called on to perform fealty.

18. Besides services in war, the lord derived other advantages from his vassals, which may be called feudal incidents: these were, 1st, reliefs; 2d, alienations: 3d, aids; 4th, escheats; 5th, wardship; and, 6th, marriage; of which the two last were, in a great measure, peculiar to England.

19. Reliefs were sums of money due from every one of full age taking a fief by descent, and were paid to the lord as a species of renewal-fine for confirming the hereditary claim. They appear to have remained unsettled, and arbitrary exactions, continually occasioning tyrannical demands on the part of the feudal suzerain, or superior lord, until they were settled by Magna Charta, at a sum not exceeding one-fourth of the annual value of the fief.

20. Alienation was a fine paid by the vassal for liberty to sell his interest in the fief to another. The customs of alienation varied in different countries; the laws prohibiting it, commonly called the laws of entail, were very strict in England, and still more so in Scotland; where they still exist in much of their former rigour.

21. Aids were arbitrary exactions required by the suzerain when he was about to engage in any expensive undertaking; such as to go on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land to become a crusader; to marry a daughter, &c. They were a great source of oppression, but by Magna Charta the occasions on which they could be claimed were limited to three; viz. when the lord's eldest son was to be made knight; when his eldest daughter was about to be married; and when it was necessary to ransom the lord from captivity.

22. Escheats were either partial or total forfeitures of the fief, which then reverted to the suzerain. Escheats occurred either through default of heirs, for vassals had not the power of conveying away their fiefs by will, or by some breach of the allegiance due from the vassal to his suzerain. The law of escheats varied in different coun-

tries ; in England, in consequence of the introduction of the custom, *corruption of blood*, it was the harshest of any form, since the forfeiture extended not only to the guilty person, but to his heirs.

23. Wardship was the right claimed by the suzerain to become the guardian of his vassals during their minority, and in that capacity to enjoy the profits of their estates until they came of age. As the feudal superiority of the English monarchs was greater than that of any other European monarchs, we find that wardship was considered, a prerogative of the crown ; and it continued to be exercised even in the time of the Stuarts, until it and other feudal abuses were abolished by the 12th Charles II.

24. Marriage ; this privilege of the suzerain principally existed in England and Scotland. As land was granted on the condition of military service, which a female could not perform, the feudal lord claimed the right of bestowing the heiress of a fief in marriage to some person of his selection ; forfeiture of the fief was the consequence of a refusal. This feudal incident gave rise to many calamitous scenes, and was one of the greatest blots on the system.

25. Besides the lords and vassals, there was a third class, which included the lower orders of society, called villeins. These were actual slaves, and for the most part *glebæ ascripti*, or bound to the soil. They could neither acquire nor inherit property, their lord was absolute master over their labour, their property, and in some cases even their lives. The condition of villeins appears to have been better in England than on the continent, more facilities were afforded for their emancipation, and more protection given them against oppression. This species of servitude gradually disappeared as civilization advanced, though we find some traces of its existence so late as the reign of Elizabeth.

26. The advantages and disadvantages of the feudal sys-

tem have been frequently made the subject of fierce discussion, but in general debaters have omitted the most important consideration on which the correct decision depends; they have usually put time out of the question. A little attention will show us that this system was fraught with utility at the time of its institution, but that in the present day it would be found cumbrous and oppressive. The decline of the Roman empire was the period of Europe's greatest demoralization; amid the crime and profligacy which every where prevailed, the vices of treachery, falsehood and ingratitude, are pre-eminently distinguished. For these a corrective was found in the feudal system; its very essence was fidelity and honourable obligation; chivalry, the offspring of feudalism, inculcated high principles of honour and veracity; but the greatest moral advantage it introduced was trial by a man's peers. There seems to have been no ancient nation in which the people felt any confidence in the administration of justice; in Athens, Rome, and Carthage, we find the same indignant complaint,

That judges still the poisonous bane imbibe,
And every hand grows callous with a bribe.

But the invention of trial by a person's peers restored to the people that reliance on justice which is the best security for public morals. Even the absurd custom, wager of battle, which will be described in the next chapter, was not a useless part of the moral discipline that fitted mankind for their present state of social happiness; a solemn appeal to the judgement of God kept alive that belief in a superintending providence, which is the most important element in practical religion.

27. The disadvantages of the feudal system are evident. Itself the offspring of conquest, it kept alive a spirit of military adventure, exalted the martial virtues far above all others, and caused continual wars, public and private.

Still but for this spirit the very names of right and privilege might have perished in Europe as they have done in Asia. Had Charlemagne left to his successors the same power over his vassals that he possessed himself, Europe would probably be now under an universal despotism.

Questions.

1. What divisions did the northern nations make of the conquered lands ?
2. What is meant by allodial tenure ?
3. How do you explain beneficiary investitures ?
4. In what respect did they differ from fiefs ?
5. What was the original signification of titles of nobility ?
6. How were they changed ?
7. What was the consequence ?
8. Was this injurious to the royal authority ?
9. How were allodial tenures changed into fiefs ?
10. What are fiefs ?
11. When did they become prevalent ?
12. What were the conditions of a fief ?
13. What was homage ?
14. What was fealty ?
15. How many species of investiture were there ?
16. To what obligations was a vassal subject ?
17. How long did military service continue ?
18. What were the feudal incidents ?
19. What were reliefs ?
20. Do any traces of feudal alienation exist in modern law ?
21. When could aids be required ?
22. What were escheats ?
23. Was wardship found to be a useful institution ?
24. How was marriage a feudal incident ?
25. What was the condition of the villeins ?
26. How does it appear that such a system as the feudal was necessary at the time of its establishment ?
27. What advantages have followed from it ?

EACH WARRIOR SEAL TO SUEW,
To pass, to wheel, the croupe to gain,
And high curvett, that not in vain
The sword's sway might descend amain
On foeman's casque below.

SCOTT.

1. CHIVALRY and cavalry being both derived from French, *cheval*, a horse, had originally the same signification; but the former is now generally limited to the institution of knighthood, which sprung up in the dark ages, was a decoration rather than an essential part of the feudal system. 2. It is not easy to discover the origin of chivalry, but we know that from the earliest ages the Germans used certain ceremonies in giving a young man the right to bear arms, and that among their barbarous customs we may discover traces of the fidelity to their leader, attachment to their brethren in arms, and respect for the male character, by which the age of knighthood was honourably distinguished. 3. About the time of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the ninth century, chivalry underwent a great change, by the introduction of religion into its ceremonies; it was sanctioned by the clergy at the council of Clermont, where also the first crusade, was

increase the respect for the institution of knighthood, because the fate of a battle was supposed to depend on the valour and conduct of the knights or cavaliers.

5. The dignity of chivalry differed from all others of which we have any account: it did not, like the Equestrian order in Rome, mark out any particular rank in the state; it was not, like the feudal titles, limited to the possessors of land; it was not hereditary, but was completely personal. Obtained originally only as the prize of valour, it was valued so highly that in addressing a monarch his title of chivalry was placed before that of royalty in the customary phrase, *Sir King*.

6. The death of Charlemagne was followed by the division of his dominions; the great proprietors taking advantage of the weakness of his successors, established independent government and jurisdiction in their several domains, and scarce paid even a nominal obedience to the sovereign. This gave rise to many disorders, several of the barons were tyrants and robbers, who committed every crime with impunity; hence redress of injuries became an important duty of chivalry, and being in general well and faithfully performed, made it a valuable institution.

7. The education of a knight usually commenced at the early age of seven: youths were sent at that time into the family of some neighbouring baron or knight of approved valour to be instructed in the chivalrous arts. They were then called *pages*, *valets*, or *varlets*, they attended as servants on their lord and lady, but were not asked to perform any menial office; they were instructed in minstrelsy, music, horsemanship, and the language of courtesy, by which dignity at that period was peculiarly distinguished. 8. After this they were raised to the rank of Esquires; their duties were now more arduous, they attended their lord to battle, relieved him when he was dismounted, supplied him with arms, and attended solely to the safety of his person. Though the esquires fought on

foot, they were not looked on in the same light as the men-at-arms, or common soldiers, they ranked next to the knights, and were considered as candidates for that order.

9. After having performed his duties in an inferior situation, the candidate of chivalry usually received the honor of knighthood from the baron by whom he had been educated. 10. Previous to his installation he kept a solemn fast, made confession of his sins, received absolution and the sacrament, and watched his arms in a church during a entire night. 11. The ceremony of conferring knighthood was simple, the future knight knelt down, spurs were fastened on him generally, by a lady; an oath of fidelity "to King, Church, and Lady fair" was administered, a sword previously blest was girt on his side, and the ceremony was completed by his receiving the *accolade*, a gentle blow of a sword on the back, from the prince or noble by whom the dignity was conferred.

12. Knights were either *bannerets* or *bachelors*; the knight banneret was the highest rank in chivalry, and was usually obtained in consequence of some distinguished exploit in battle; he was distinguished by a square banner on his lance, other knights bearing an indented pennon, and he was allowed the privilege of commanding a separate body in the field, without attaching himself like others to the service of some nobleman.

13. A knight bachelor, so called from *bas* low, and *chevalier* a knight, was not of necessity unmarried, but was thus named from his inferiority in dignity to the banneret. He could not serve independently in war, but was obliged to attach himself to the train of some baron or banneret, and fight in his ranks.

14. The arms of the knight were the lance, whose length varied with the strength or fancy of the bearer; at the extremity of the wood was a small flag, or pennon, whose shape marked his dignity; at the saddle-bow usually hung a battle-axe, or else a species of sledge called a maul, or

martel; the latter was the favourite weapon of the clergy when they served in war; they believed that the shedding of blood was inconsistent with their profession, but felt no scruple in fracturing an adversary's skull, and knocking out his brains. 15. The favourite weapon of the knight was his sword, he distinguished it by some particular name, had an inscription of some kind carved on it, swore by it, and partially made it an object of worship, the cross on its handle serving him for a crucifix. 16. The last weapon that need be noticed was whimsically designated the dagger of mercy, and was used to put an end to the enemy who had been overthrown in the combat.

17. The defensive armour was the shield, on which the cognizance of his family was painted, or else some fanciful allusion to the knight's circumstances; the helmet, on which was a plume of feathers, and the knight's hereditary crest; and the coat of mail, whose fashion varied at different periods; at first it was a species of chain-armour, formed of rings, but solid plates were substituted for this, at a later period, to which continual additions were made, until the knights became at length completely locked in steel.

18. The exercises of chivalry were jousts and tournaments, of these there were two species, the joust for pleasure, and the joust to the utterance. 19. In some respects they were both alike: a large space was inclosed by palings, called the lists, in galleries placed round the spectators sat, many of these were ladies anxious to witness the exploits of their favourite cavaliers. The lists were under the regulation of two noblemen, called Marshals of the field, and these were attended by Heralds, in rich robes of state, trumpeters, &c.; sometimes companies of knights attacked each other, and this was called a *melee*, but more frequently the combat was maintained by single knights. The knights, besides their customary cognizance, usually bore a scarf, bestowed on them by the lady of their love,

or selected by themselves from their knowledge of her favourite colour. 20. On a given signal the knights spurred their horses against each other from the opposite sides of the list, and endeavoured to dismount their adversary by the shock of the spear-stroke; the higher up the body that the spear struck, the more the blow was valued, whoever was unhorsed was held vanquished. The reward of success was usually some personal ornament, which the knight received from some lady's hand.

21. In the jousts for pleasure, the spears and swords were blunted to prevent fatal consequences: in jousts to the utterance, the usual weapons of war were allowed, and such tournaments were frequently as bloody as a battle. 22. There were, however, several circumstances which contributed to diminish the slaughter, of which the most important was, that the sovereigns, in whose presence these combats usually took place, might at any time put a stop to the fight by throwing down their warders.

23. A very common species of tournament was named the *passage of arms*; some prince or noble proclaimed that he would, on a certain day, appear on some particular road or bridge, and with his companions defend the passage from all comers. The challenger usually specified the conditions of the combat in his proclamation, and they were sometimes mere jousts for exercise, but more frequently combats to the utterance.

24. In consequence of the intermixture of superstition and chivalry, combats formed a part of the ordinary administration of justice. A nobleman, or knight, accused of any crime, might offer to maintain his innocence with his body; permission to decide the dispute was called granting *wager of battle*, ecclesiastics and females were allowed the privilege of appearing by proxy: this custom of judicial combat was not totally abolished in England until the present century. During the regency, *wager of battle* was abolished by the 59th George III. chap. 46.

25. Chivalry was connected with feudalism by the Norman kings of England, every person who held a fief from the crown was obliged to give personal service in the wars of the sovereign for forty days, and to bring with him a number of knights and men-at-arms, proportionate to the extent of his possessions. 26. In the course of time the great feudatories of the crown found personal attendance a great inconvenience, and the sovereign, on the other hand, being seldom able to conclude a war in forty days, began to prefer a body of mercenaries to a levy of his vassals. To pay these mercenaries a tax was levied on the knights as a compensation for their absence, this was called *escuage*, and the granting to Parliament the regulation of the amount of *escuage* is one of the most important provisions in Magna Charta.

27. The effects of chivalry were in many respects very beneficial, it introduced a courtesy of demeanour, and softness of manner, which went far to alleviate the harshness of the feudal system; above all, it inculcated that high respect for the female character which has ever been found the most important element in the social happiness of a nation. 28. On the other hand, its undue elevation of military prowess over every other virtue, tended to create a dislike to literature and other arts of peace, while its judicial combats originated the criminal and senseless fashion of duelling, a practice which still exists despite the augmented knowledge of the present age, and the increased influence of religious principle.

Questions.

1. What do you mean by chivalry?
2. How does it appear to have originated?
3. When was religion made a part of chivalrous institutions?
4. How long did cavalry form the most valued part of an army?
5. How did the dignity of chivalry differ from that of all other noble institutions?
6. When did an institution for redress of injuries become necessary?

7. How was the future knight educated ?
8. What were the duties of an esquire ?
9. By whom was the dignity of knighthood conferred ?
10. What previous preparation was necessary ?
11. In what manner was the dignity conferred ?
12. How many species of knights were there ?
13. What is meant by a knight bachelor ?
14. What were the arms of a knight ?
15. How does it appear that the sword was a favorite weapon ?
16. When was the dagger of mercy used ?
17. What defensive armour did knights wear ?
18. How many kinds of jousts were there ?
19. What general description may be given of a tournament ?
20. How was the value of a blow regulated ?
21. What was the difference between jousts for pleasure and jousts the utterance ?
22. What custom sometimes prevented bloodshed ?
23. What was a passage of arms ?
24. When was wager of battle permitted ?
25. By whom was chivalry united with feudalism ?
26. How did the tax called escuage originate ?
27. What advantages resulted from chivalry ?
28. Were any disadvantages derived from it ?

CHAPTER III.

THE CRUSADES, *or* CROISSADES.

THE FIRST CRUSADE.

How great ! how glorious were our aims ! we vowed
 The noble walls of Sion to obtain,
 And work redemption for the faithful bowed
 Beneath subjection's ignominious chain,
 Founding in Palestine a purer reign
 Where Piety might rest, and Peace recline
 In full security, and none restrain
 The free-born pilgrim passing o'er the brine
 From offering holy vows at meek Messiah's shrine.

WIFFEN.

1. THERE is no city in the world whose possession has been so long and so frequently contested as Jerusalem

seventeen times has it been taken and pillaged, and before its walls millions have been slaughtered. 2. When Christianity became the established religion of the Roman empire, the empress Helena destroyed the monuments of idolatry by which the sacred city was polluted, and erected a magnificent church over the supposed site of the holy sepulchre. 3. There is a natural desire in the human mind to visit the scene where any great event has occurred, and where any great exploit has been performed; this desire, mingled with devotional feelings, induced many from the earliest ages to undertake pilgrimages to Jerusalem, and visit those spots which the great founder of Christianity had hallowed by his presence and by his sufferings. 4. Even after Jerusalem had been captured by the followers of Mohammed, and the Saracenic empire established in Palestine, multitudes continued to visit Jerusalem and endured the insults and oppressions of the Mohammedans, to be permitted to worship in a place which they believed to be more peculiarly "the habitation of God's house, and the place where his honour was dwelling."

5. From the time that Palestine had fallen into the possession of the Saracens, a general desire was felt throughout Europe to attempt its recovery, and establish there a Christian kingdom; but it was not until the pontificate of Gregory VII., better known by the name of Hildebrand, that any attempt was made to give effect to these wishes. 6. That able and ambitious pontiff intended to have engaged all the powers of Europe to join in attempting the recovery of Palestine. In one of his letters, he says, that he has more than fifty thousand men ready to march under his command. 7. Policy seems to have united with religion in the formation of this project; the rapid progress and brilliant victories of the Saracens shewed the expediency of erecting some bulwark to protect the east of Europe, the establishment of a Catholic kingdom in Palestine, and the reconciling the Greek

church to the Holy See, and extending the papal authority over the princes of Asia. 8. But Gregory soon got involved in a dispute with the emperor of Germany; the design of foreign conquest was laid aside for the more lucrative and tempting project of establishing the temporal supremacy of the popes over the monarchs of Europe, and the recovery of Palestine was left to be attempted by persons whose means and abilities seemed totally inadequate to the design.

A.D. 1095. 9. Peter the Hermit, a native of Picardy, having undertaken a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, was filled with indignation at beholding the oppressions of the Christians and the triumphs of the infidels. On his return he represented these facts to Urban II., and the pope resolved to set both kings and people in motion to obtain possession of Jerusalem. 10. Peter, a bold enthusiast, went every where through Europe to preach up the crusade, or croissade, as these wars were called from the cross assumed by every one who joined in the expedition. 11. This hermit, of a hideous figure, covered with rags, walking barefoot, speaking as a prophet and listened to with such, inspired the people every where with an enthusiasm similar to his own. 12. The pope held a council at Piacenza to determine upon the expedition, which was attended by countless multitudes. The Italians highly applauded the undertaking, and praised Peter to the skies; but with this applause they were contented, they were too wise and too much attached to their native country to quit it for uncertain hopes and visionary expectations.

13. It was at the council held at Clermont in France that the hopes of Peter began to be realised; though Urban II. had anathematized the king, he found no difficulty in stirring up the people. 14. The pontiff proclaimed that service in this war would atone for all former sins, he promised that the Church would take under its protection the families and properties of the absent soldiery, he pro-

tured to them in glowing colours the riches of Asia, and assured them that God would bless their exertions, and give them certain victory. 15. The assembled multitude broke out into the most enthusiastic applause, "It is the will of God," "It is the will of God," resounded from every side; and the greatest eagerness was exhibited to become soldiers of the cross *.

16. The eloquence of the Pope, the pressing solicitations sent by the emperor Alexius, and above all the reputed sanctity of Peter, combined to spread through Europe an enthusiasm that bordered on insanity. In every part of the Western world preparations were made for invading the East, and scenes the most extraordinary were of daily occurrence. 17. The Pope had granted a plenary indulgence to every person who joined in these expeditions, and as there were many whom the disordered state of society had led to the commission of crime †, troops of banditti crowded as volunteers to the expedition, those who were sunk in debt took this opportunity of escaping from their creditors, some were led to enlist from the hope of obtaining immense treasures in the East, love of enterprise seduced others, a frantic religious zeal animated all.

18. The first efforts of the Crusaders were the most miserable and unfortunate that can be conceived. An army ‡

* The cross was borne on the right shoulder and sometimes on the back, in consequence of a perverted application of the text, "He who does not take up his cross and follow me, is not worthy of me."

† Hence old Fuller quaintly remarks that "the blackguards of the devil became the soldiers of God."

‡ Of the kind of people that followed Walter we may judge from the statement of his forces, he had 20,000 foot and 8 horsemen. Whole families joined in this adventure, the farmer was to be seen driving a waggon drawn by oxen containing his wife and children; while around the lines were boys bearing mimic implements of war, mistaking every stranger for a Turk, and every new town for Jerusalem. The enumeration of the nations who joined in the crusade, by Robert of Gloucester, is very amusing. There were men, he says,

under the command of a poor but brave Norman gentleman named Walter the Pennyless; Peter the Hermit led a second; a third division was commanded by Godeschal a German priest; and a fourth horde followed without any determinate leader. 19. The excesses committed by them, especially the latter, augured ill for the success of the war. These furious bigots began with a cruel massacre of the Jews throughout Germany, and professed to believe that the sacrifice of this unfortunate race was the best propitiation that could be offered for their future success. 20. Myriads of these hapless people were ruthlessly put to death with bitter tortures and indignities, and many Jewish families committed suicide by mutual agreement, to escape the horrors prepared for them by the Crusaders. 21. These misguided fanatics, on their passage through Hungary and Bulgaria were impelled by want to commit the most frightful excesses; at length the inhabitants rose *en masse*, hunted the unfortunate crusaders like wild beasts and exterminated them by entire companies. A miserable wreck of this immense host with difficulty reached the walls of Constantinople, and found that they were not likely to meet there with a welcome reception. 22. The Grecian emperor Alexius, anxious to get rid of his dangerous visitors, provided them with means of passing the Bosphorus, and they boldly advanced to the plains of Nice, the capital of Bithynia. Here this frantic expedition terminated, the Turks attacked the undisciplined multitude, a slaughter rather than a battle ensued, Walter fell fighting valiantly,

Of Normandy, of Denmark, of Norway, of Bretagne,
Of Wales and of Ireland, of Gascony and Spain,
Of Provence, of Saxony, and of Allemagne,
Of Scotland and of Greece, of Rome and Aquitain.

* A party, to save their lives, fled into a church; the Bulgarian Christians would not pollute the holy place with blood, but they set it on fire, and thus destroyed their enemies without violating the scruples of conscience.

and Peter, with a few followers escaped to Constantinople. 23. So great was the carnage, that the pile of mangled limbs formed by the Turks in their barbarous sport, formed a considerable eminence called "the hill of bones."

24. * More than a quarter of a million had perished uselessly before the regular army of the crusaders began to arrive. Never was there assembled an army so distinguished for the rank, heroism, and devotion of its leaders.

25. By unanimous consent the first rank is assigned to Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Lorrain, a prince distinguished both as a statesman and soldier, equally remarkable for his virtues and his valour; he was accompanied by the Crusaders from all the states between the Rhine and Elbe, who acknowledged his supremacy more from his pre-eminent qualifications, than his superior power. 26. Marching through Hungary into Thrace, he strenuously exerted himself to efface the impressions which the ravages of Walter's followers had produced, and gave his brother Baldwin as a hostage to the Hungarian monarch that no devastations would be permitted in the march through his territories.

27. Hugh, brother of Philip king of France, Stephen, count of Blois and Chartres, with Robert, earl of Flanders, led a second division composed of Norman-French. These warriors passed over the Alps into Italy, intending to complete the rest of their journey by sea. 28. Following the same track came Robert Curthose, son of William the Conqueror, with a gallant train of English and Norman knights, among whom Eustace † Earl of Boulogne,

* The numbers at the very lowest estimate were :

Walter's mob	20,000
Peter's	40,000
Godeschal's	15,000
Last division	200,000

Total 275,000

† Eustace was the brother of Godfrey, but through the whole war he attached himself to the army of Robert.

Stephen earl of Albemarle, and the celebrated Bishop earl of Kent.

29. The inhabitants of Gascony, Provence, and south of France sent a numerous and well-appointed army under Raymond count of Thoulouse; these took a direct route from the rest, marching through Dalmatia and northern provinces of the ancient Epirus, where they suffered many hardships from the difficulties of the country and the jealous hostility of the inhabitants.

30. The last, but not least important division of allied forces was commanded by the crafty Bohemond prince of Tarentum, and his cousin the virtuous Tancred. The soldiers whom they commanded were raised principally among the Normans, who had settled in Italy and wrested its southern provinces from the deputies of the Greek emperor.

31. Though sent to act against the Mohammedans, he was for some time every probability that their first object would be the siege of a Christian city. 32. Alexius emperor of Constantinople, was the most selfish and unprincipled hypocrite that ever disgraced a throne. At the same time it must be confessed that the conduct of many among the crusading chieftains threw some suspicion on their real designs, and the presence of Bohemond, the enemy of the Greeks, and fully as notorious for insatiable ambition, and deep dissimulation as for his valour, might justly have alarmed a monarch less timorous than Alexius. 34. The emperor began by withholding provisions from the crusaders, ordering his fleets to intercept their convoys and his deputies to impede their march through his provinces; these insults were on the point of being avenged by a bloody contest, when the prudence of Tancred combined with the fears of Alexius to avert the calamity. 35. * Terms of amity were concluded, the emperor

* The interview between Alexius and Bohemond was the most cunning piece of dissimulation ever acted. Never were a pair better

agreed to supply the army with money and provisions, while the Crusaders* did homage to Alexius, and acknowledged him the liege lord of their future acquisitions in Syria and Palestine.

Questions.

1. How often has Jerusalem been taken?
2. By whom was the church of the Holy Sepulchre erected?
3. What feelings appear to have given rise to pilgrimages?
4. Under what disadvantages were they continued?
5. What pontiff first proposed a general league against the Saracens?
6. How does this appear?
7. Were there any political reasons for such a combination?
8. Why did not Gregory effect his design?
9. Under what pontiff was the first crusade proposed?
10. By whom was the crusade preached?
11. What was Peter's success?
12. At what council was a crusade proposed?
13. Where was it resolved on?
14. What arguments were used by the Pope?
15. What effect did he produce on the assembly?
16. What other causes led to the first crusade?
17. Why did many persons of bad character join the crusaders?
18. Who directed their first efforts?
19. What crimes did they commit?
20. How does the severity of the persecution appear?
21. What misfortunes did these fanatics suffer?

The emperor pretended to admire the valor and conduct which the Tarentine prince had shewn in his wars with the Greek Empire. The Norman was enthusiastic in his professions of personal admiration and attachment to Alexius. But each knew well the value of the other's professions; Alexius successfully set up Raymond as a rival to the Tarentine, and Bohemond, on his part, refused to eat or drink at the royal banquet, and openly congratulated his friends who shared in it at their escape from poison. Alexius was more successful in imposing on others; the letters which Stephen, count of Blois, sent home to his wife, carefully recount all the fine speeches and flattering promises made by Alexius to the gallant Norman, who implicitly received them as holy truth.

* Raymond and Tancred, with some others, refused to join in these disgraceful terms.

30. Who commanded the last division ?
31. How was the war likely to commence ?
32. What was the character of Alexius ?
33. Whence arose his hostility to the crusaders ?
34. How was a war prevented ?
35. On what conditions was peace made ?

CHAPTER IV.

THE FIRST CRUSADE CONTINUED.

There the wild Crusaders form ;
 There assembled Europe stands ;
 Heav'n they deem awakes the storm,
 Hell the paynim's blood demands.

CARLYLE

1. ON the plains of Nice, the capital of Bithynia, beginning of May, 1097, Godfrey reviewed the assembled army of the Christians, amounting to more than a million of men. There were collected the flower of Europe's chivalry, who had quitted their respective countries without a hope of return, to support what they deemed the cause of God. Who that had seen the

pomp, and circumstance of glorious war," would have supposed that all this display, all this devotion, and all this valour, would be "wasted, and wasted in vain?" 2. The operations of the campaign commenced with the siege of Nice, a strongly fortified city, situated on the lake Ascanius. An attempt to carry the town by storm was defeated with great loss, the poisoned arrows of the garrison making fearful havoc among the assailants. 3. This failing, the siege was formed regularly, and all * the inventions of war then known were brought into action ; but the strength of the town, and the facilities which the lake afforded the besieged of obtaining provisions, threatened long to keep it from the possession of the assailants. 4. Meantime the sultan of Rhoum made preparations to relieve the town, and despatched messengers to the besieged, requiring them to aid his efforts by a timely sally. 5. The messengers being intercepted, Godfrey had notice of his danger ; and when the sultan arrived, the Christians were prepared for his reception. 6. The battle was fierce and bloody ; each had miscalculated the strength of his opponents : the sultan expected to find as little resistance as he had met from Walter's mob ; the Christians were astonished to find that the Saracens fought with enthusiasm equal to their own. 7. The Provençals under Raymond were the principal sufferers, especially from the arrows and assaults of the light troop. In all the skirmishing and distant assaults, the sultan had the advantage ; but when the armies closed in line, the superiority of the Christians became manifest ; the charge of Godfrey's cavalry decided the fate of the day ;

* The names of some of the warlike instruments are whimsical enough : we read of beffries, cats, castle-cats, foxes, and other strange denominations. The beffries were wooden towers, covered with boiled hides, to prevent their being destroyed by fire. The cats were covered galleries, protected by which workmen could advance to undermine the walls, or fill up ditches, so as to allow the towers to advance. The foxes seem to have been a different kind of shed, for the same purpose.

the lances of the knights broke the Saracen lines; and when they came to closer combat, the swords of the crusaders were found more effective weapons than the eastern sabres.

8. The sultan, after some vain efforts to retrieve the fortune of the day, was compelled to fly; and as quarter was neither asked nor given, the slaughter of his troops was immense.

9. The siege of Nice was resumed with fresh vigour; "the hill of bones," which had received fearful additions, formed a hostile tower; vessels sent over land in frame by Alexius occupied the Ascanian lake; and practicable breaches were made in some of the towers. 10. On the very morning that the Christians were preparing for the assault, great was their astonishment to perceive the flag of the Greek emperor waving on its walls. 11. The admiral who commanded the Greek flotilla on the lake had entered into a negociation with the Saracen governor, and under the sanction of the crafty Alexius, had undertaken to save it from pillage, if immediately surrendered to him in the name of his master. 12. The indignation of the Crusaders at this ungenerous trick was violent, and it required all the influence of Godfrey to prevent an open rupture; but sensible that the aid of the emperor was necessary to his future success, he dissembled his resentment, and marched southwards to besiege Antioch.

13. Their journey to Antioch was one unvarying scene of distress and dissention; and though they obtained a brilliant victory at Doryleum, yet several of the crusaders deserted, others went individually on predatory expeditions; and Baldwin having gone to relieve the Christian principality of Edessa, was * adopted by the king of that

* The ceremony of adoption was the most extraordinary possible: in the presence of the whole court, both king and queen folded Baldwin in their inner garments, and pressed the Latin warrior to their naked bosoms; after this, he was formally acknowledged as their son. The principality of Edessa is on the borders of Mesopotamia.

entry, and founded there a pretty kingdom. 14. The army arrived before Antioch the 21st of October, and commenced a siege more difficult than that of Nice, and more arduous to the besiegers than any siege before or since. For three months the fertile country around Antioch supported the crusaders; but at the end of that period famine* appeared in the camp with all its horrors; cannibalism was practised to a horrid extent, and crimes of such nature shudders, were perpetrated with impunity. Desertions now became frequent, and even Peter, the hermit, himself attempted to abandon the cause. 17. The Seljukian states, animated more by a love of gain than by any charitable feeling, sent large convoys of provision to the nearest Syrian ports. 18. An attempt on the part of the Saracens to intercept these provisions, brought on a general engagement, which decided the fate of Antioch. The victory, like the two former, was entirely owing to the superior valour of the knights and heavy-armed infantry, in light troops the Saracens had ever been superior. 19. Antioch was now so closely blockaded, and so hard pressed, that its fall, at no distant period, was surely expected; but the news of the approach of the

* This famine almost realized the terrific picture drawn by Darwin in Botanic Garden.

Loud o'er the camp the fiend of Famine shrieks,
Calls all her brood, and champs her hundred beaks;
O'er ten square leagues her pennons broad expand,
And twilight swims upon the shuddering sand;
Perch'd on her crest the griffin Discord clings,
And giant Murder rides between her wings;
Blood from each clotted hair and horny quill,
And showers of tears in blended streams distil;
High pois'd in air her spiry neck she bends,
Rolls her keen eye, her dragon claws extends,
Darts from above, and tears, at each fell swoop,
With iron fangs the decimated troop.

in Antioch an Armenian renegade, named * Phirouz, great favourite of the brave governor, Baghasian; in course of a long siege, many circumstances combined make him acquainted with the character of the Tarentine prince; and accordingly, finding their dispositions congenial, a species of amity sprung up between them, and the surrender of Antioch was finally arranged by the wof pair. As soon as Phirouz had learned that the offers Bohemond were accepted by the Christian council, betrayed his quarter of the city to the Tarentine soldiers

June 3, and the whole army of the crusaders rushed
A.D. to the spoil of † Antioch. 22. The siege b
1098. lasted nearly eight months; the miseries suffer
by the besiegers were unparalleled; the vengeance tak
on the besieged was so likewise. Saracens, Greek
Armenian Christians were slaughtered without pity or
morse, and for several days it was impossible to rest
the discipline of the army, madly resolved on murder
plunder.

23. The crusaders were soon condemned to suffer

their turn ; the threatened army of Persians and Tartars arrived with forces too numerous to meet in the field. Antioch was again besieged ; the Grecian emperor advancing to its relief, was terrified by the accounts given of the Persian power. The port by which the intercourse with Europe was kept up fell into the hands of the new enemies, and their fleet was burned. 24. When all hope of success by rational means had failed, the effect of an appeal to superstition was tried with success. Raymond, count of Thoulouse, a chief not over remarkable for steadiness of faith, persuaded a priest to assert that he had ascertained by revelation the exact spot where the * lance, by which the side of the Redeemer had been pierced, was deposited. Search was made, and the lance found in the place he had designated. The multitude, inspired by this pretended miracle, clamoured to be led against the enemy, and Raymond, bearing the consecrated lance in his hand, led the vanguard. 25. In the middle of the battle, while the number of the Persians, and the valour of their sultan, Kerhoga, kept the fortune of the day in doubt, the appearance of some horsemen in white on a neighbouring hill, persuaded the crusaders that the martyrs had quitted their mansions of bliss to aid the soldiers of the cross. With this persuasion they were invincible ; the Persians and Tartars were forced to fly with such precipitation, that their camp, and all its rich furniture, became the prey of the crusaders. 26. The booty, after making every allowance for the exaggerations of the monkish historians, must have been immense ; the soldiers of the cross were sud-

* The sacred lance was entrusted to Raymond and his Provençals ; but the superiority they assumed on account of the sacred trust excited the envy, and, finally, the suspicion of the army. Peter Barthelemy, the original discoverer of the lance, offered to prove his assertions by the fiery ordeal. On an appointed day he rushed into the flames, bearing the sacred lance in his hand, and was burned to death. Thus the delusion and its author perished together.

denly raised from the most bitter despair to the high hopes; from the lowest depths of poverty, to the sum of riches.

27. The winter was spent in the idle disputes of interested ambition, which more than once threatened the ruin of the expedition; and it was late in the following spring when the march to Jerusalem was commenced.

June 7, 28. In the beginning of June, the crusaders came
A.D. within view of the holy city: all their toils, all their
1099. sufferings were forgotten; not a tithe of the sorrows

that had been reviewed only two years before, at Nice, remained; yet those who had passed through all the calamities, felt all their original enthusiasm revive in full force, when they gazed on that city, which no person has yet looked upon without emotion.

29. The siege of Jerusalem, though not so calamitous as that of Antioch, was still sufficiently severe; the Saracen garrison made a vigorous resistance; the neighbouring country was sterile and exhausted; above all, a long and terrible drought deprived the besiegers of that greatest of all necessities, water. 30. A solemn religious procession was ordered to march round the walls of Jerusalem, the day before the intended assault. The religious enthusiasm with which this inspired the soldiers was stung to madness by the insults of the Saracens, who, with indecent mockery, parodied the religious ceremonies of the crusaders.

July 15, 31. On the following morning at day-break
A.D. the preparations for the assault were completed
1099. the wooden towers were moved up to the walls

bridges from them and ladders for escalade were in readiness, and the trumpets sounded to the charge. Every soldier fought as if the success of the attack depended on his own individual exertions; every leader fought rather than commanded, and directed his men by example rather than by precept. Godfrey was the third person who reached

the wall. 32. The Saracens, after an ineffectual struggle, were forced to take refuge in the city, and the standard of the cross floated over the walls of Jerusalem. The description of the unfurling of the sacred banner given by Tasso is so beautiful, that its insertion will readily be pardoned.

The glorious ensign in a thousand wreaths
And folds voluminous rejoicing twines ;
It seems the wind on it more sweetly breathes ;
It seems the sun on it more brightly shines :
That each tossed javelin, each armed shaft declines,
To strike the staff—the streets Hosannas sound ;
Floods clap their hands, on mountains dance the pines :
Seems it that Sion's hills, with verdure crown'd,
Stoop from the clouds their crests, and bend adoring round.

WIFFEN.

33. Turning from this beautiful picture to the sad realities of the scene, we find that the crusaders commenced a cruel slaughter of the garrison, exceeding even the terrible massacre they had perpetrated at Antioch ; they believed that they were doing God service by slaying his enemies, and that to spare an enemy was sinful. The contemporary writers use various expressions to convey an extent of the slaughter ; they tell us that in one quarter of the city more than ten thousand perished, whose mangled limbs floated down the streets in a stream of blood ; and the knights in their letters declare, that they rode in Saracen blood up to the knees of their horses.

34. When they arrived within sight of the holy sepulchre, these blood-stained warriors became devout pilgrims, with their heads and feet bare, their eyes streaming with tears, and their lips pouring forth the accents of devotion, they advanced to the sacred shrine, and offered their prayers and thanksgivings at the holy altar. 35. Godfrey was elected king, but he refused to wear a crown of gold, where his Redeemer had worn a crown of thorns. The churches were repaired ; the Pope's legate invested with the patri-

Questions.

1. Where was the great review of the Christian troops held?
2. What town did they first assail?
3. What impeded the siege?
4. Who prepared to relieve the town?
5. By what means was this discovered?
6. What mistakes were made by both parties?
7. How was the engagement decided?
8. What made this a very bloody battle?
9. How did the Crusaders proceed with the siege of Nice?
10. In what manner were they frustrated?
11. How was this effected?
12. Why did not the Crusaders take vengeance on the Greek?
13. What circumstances occurred on the march to Antioch?
14. When did they arrive before it?
15. What calamities did they suffer there?
16. What remarkable person deserted?
17. How were the crusaders relieved?
18. In what manner was the fate of Antioch decided?
19. Who offered to give the Christians possession of Antioch?
20. Why was the offer accepted?

* Here, for the last time, we meet any mention of Peter, the he in the first burst of joy his desertion at Antioch was forgotten, as conquerors of Jerusalem almost worshipped him, who had first in them to undertake this glorious war.

21. How was Bohemond enabled to keep his promise ?
22. In what manner did the crusaders treat the garrison ?
23. What calamity did they suffer in their turn ?
24. How were they relieved ?
25. What fortuitous circumstance contributed to their success ?
26. What advantages followed from the victory ?
27. How did the crusaders spend the winter ?
28. How were they affected by the sight of Jerusalem ?
29. What calamities did they endure while the siege lasted ?
30. How did they endeavour to avert them ?
31. On what day did they make the assault ?
32. What was its success ?
33. How were the garrison treated ?
34. What inconsistency was there in the conduct of the crusaders ?
35. Who was elected king of Jerusalem ?

CHAPTER V.

THE SECOND CRUSADE.

Ye trampled tombs, ye fanes forlorn,
Ye stones by tears of pilgrims worn,
Your ravish'd honour to restore,
Fearless we climb this hostile shore.

WARTON.

1. THERE were three Christian principalities established in Palestine by the first crusaders ; the kingdom of Jerusalem ; the county of Edessa ; the county of Antioch : a fourth was soon after added by Raymond, who subdued Tripoli
2. The heroic Godfrey did not long enjoy the honours of royalty ; he died in the second year of his reign, and the sceptre was transferred to his brother, Baldwin, count of Edessa. 3. Baldwin was a valiant and successful prince ; he enlarged the boundaries of the kingdom, and * gained

* On one occasion, the contempt he had for his antagonists nearly proved fatal. He went to repel an invasion of the Egyptians with only a few hundred horse ; the crusaders were overwhelmed by numbers,

the instability of the possession they had acquired at a cost. The legates claimed supremacy over the king of Jerusalem, and the crusading monarchs were not disposed to pay much regard to the claim. The different principalities looked on each other as rivals, while the Greek emperor heartily hated them all. They plotted, combined and fought among themselves, and were at the same time assailed by Grecian treachery and Mahomedan war. 6. The institution of two military orders, the Knights Hospitallers and the Knights Templars; the former of which were distinguished by a white, and the latter by a black cross. These mixed religious and military orders, though bound by vows of poverty and piety, became subsequent

and Stephen, count de Blois, with other gallant knights, perished. Baldwin took refuge in the castle of Ramula, and as it was closely blockaded, badly fortified, and worse garrisoned, escape seemed hopeless. He was saved, however, by the gratitude of a Saracen chief, whose wife he had saved, with generosity unusual at the period, Baldwin had rescued the brutal soldiery. The gallant Saracen presented himself at Ramula, sought and obtained an interview with Baldwin, and he conducted him safe through the hostile camp, restored him to his liberty.

• Some of the lords of Palestine sent an offer of the crown to Baldwin.

the richest and most profligate bodies in Europe. 7. The valour of the Saracen princes, Malek, Zenghi, and Nouredin, began soon to shake the Latin throne in Palestine; and, at length, the fall of Edessa made them sensible, that without fresh assistance from Europe, 1145. their ruin was inevitable.

8. Courtenay, who had been appointed count of Edessa on the accession of Baldwin II. to the throne of Jerusalem, was one of the bravest warriors of the crusaders. While on a distant expedition, in which he was severely wounded, the principality was invaded by the sultan of Iconium. The return of Courtenay compelled the Saracens to come to an engagement, and though dying of his wound, Courtenay obtained a splendid victory by the terror of his name. 9. His son and successor was a weak inglorious prince; the principality was laid waste, and the capital at length taken by the Saracens, who severely retorted on the Christians the calamities that had been inflicted on the inhabitants of Nice, Antioch, and Bithynia.

10. The eastern clergy, terrified at this calamity, sent pressing entreaties to Pope Eugenius III. to succour them in this urgent danger. The Pope found an able assistant in St. Bernard, then looked up to as the oracle of Europe. He was a priest remarkable for piety, learning, and eloquence: if some of the faults of his age and time sully his character, let it be remembered that he was the first person of authority who interfered to alleviate the sufferings of the Jews, and that his influence alone prevented the general massacre of that unfortunate race, which some prelates had proposed, as a means of propitiating heaven. In France and Germany the eloquence of Bernard was as successful as the enthusiasm of Peter had been—he even surpassed his predecessor, by engaging two crowned heads to join in the new expedition.

11. Louis VII. King of France, had committed a crime surpassing in its atrocity any that are recorded even in that

ferocious period. After the surrender of Vitri he had massacred in a church 1300 of the inhabitants, who had vainly trusted to his mercy and to his reverence for the sacred sanctuary. Remorse for this crime tortured his conscience, and he resolved to go to the Holy Land, as a

A.D. means of expiating his offence. 12. At an assembly held at Vezelai, in Burgundy, the King and the Abbot, mounted on a scaffold, exhorted the people to protect the Holy Sepulchre from becoming a prey to idolaters, as they in their ignorance described the Saracens. 13. The whole assembly burst out into raptures of enthusiasm; Louis and his Queen Eleonora took the cross, and their subjects became so ardent to imitate their example, that materials were wanting to furnish the symbols of enlistment, until the enthusiastic Bernard tore his robe to supply them.

14. From this scene of his success Bernard went to the German court. Some of his admirers in after ages declared that he worked miracles: he himself declares that his persuading the Emperor Conrad was the miracle of miracles. The triumph of Bernard's eloquence was as great in Germany as it had been in France. The Emperor at first hesitated, but a sermon of Bernard's removed his doubts †, and he with most of his nobles and several even of the softer sex, prepared to set out for the Holy Land.

15. Conrad was the first to take the field; his march

* They exclaimed, as the first crusaders did at Clermont, "It is the will of God." This phrase, "Deus id vult," was the war-cry of the crusaders; after some time an addition was made to it, and from the second down to the last crusade the war-cry was

"Deus id vult, adjuva Deus,"

God wills it; help us, O God!

† Bernard's text, in preaching up the crusades, was Romans xiv. 8. "Whether we live, we live unto the Lord: and whether we die, we die unto the Lord," &c.; thence he argued how much better it was to die for than unto the Lord.

to Constantinople was harassed by the secret enmity of the Greeks, who at the instigation of their Emperor either refused the army provisions, or sent them small and adulterated supplies. 16. When they arrived at Constantinople, Manuel, the Byzantine Emperor, pretended to receive them with great cordiality, but Conrad, having penetrated his dissimulation, rejected his offer of a public interview, and passed his army over the Bosphorus.

17. Louis arrived soon after, and was received by Manuel as his friend and equal. The French monarch was delighted with the kindness and honours shewn him by the crafty Emperor; great, then, was the surprise of Louis to discover that Manuel was in close correspondence with the Sultan of Iconium. 18. The French nobles were desirous of taking instant revenge, by assaulting Constantinople. But Louis, aware that their hope of supply depended on the friendship of the Greeks, dissembled his resentment, and to prevent any ebullition of the indignant feelings of his troops, led his army into Asia.

19. The army of Conrad had been supplied with guides by Manuel Comnenus—whether these were bribed by the Saracens, or whether, as the Western writers unanimously assert, they acted under the secret orders of the treacherous Greek*, it is not very easy to determine; but certain it is, that they led the unfortunate Germans into a Mahomedan ambuscade; where, hemmed in by inaccessible rocks, they fell an easy prey to the Sultan of Iconium. 20. The Germans were unable to fight or fly, for the Saracens were beyond their reach, on the summits of cliffs which they could not ascend; and the nature of the

* Manuel Comnenus is distinguished above most of the Greek emperors for valour and magnificence; there is, therefore, some room to doubt his being guilty of such atrocious treachery; but it is certain, on the other hand, that he was in constant correspondence with the Sultan of Iconium, and that he was cognizant of the frauds of his subjects, who supplied the Christians with unwholesome and adulterated food.

ground prevented the men-at-arms from forming in line, while it gave every possible advantage to the light troops of the enemy. The greater part of the army perished. Conrad, with a few followers, escaped, and hastened to join the army of Louis.

21. Nothing could equal the astonishment of Louis when he was met on his march by the miserable remnant of the German troops. Their presence, however, served rather to animate the French with a desire of vengeance, than to dispirit them with dread of similar calamity. 22. They advanced through Asia Minor by a route nearer to the sea than had been taken by their predecessors, and on the banks of the Meander defeated a numerous army of Saracens, who had prepared to oppose their passage. 23.

Jan. 1148. But this was the last of their triumphs; in passing over the mountains which separate Phrygia from Pisidia, the vanguard unfortunately advanced too far beyond the rear; this was taken instant advantage of by their ever vigilant enemies, and the passes of the mountains were secured by the active Saracens. As Louis, with the second division of his army, came up the mountain, he saw its summit covered with armed men, whom he concluded to be his own soldiers; but he was soon fatally undeceived, a sudden charge of the Saracens, lightly armed, and accustomed to the hills, threw the French into irrecoverable disorder; enemies appeared as if by magic, at once in front, flank, and rear. The crusaders, encumbered with armour, which, however useful in regular combat, was in such desultory warfare as this a serious disadvantage, fell almost without resistance, or were hurled over the precipices. It was with great difficulty that Louis could escape with the miserable relics of his gallant troops, and rejoin the division which was as yet uninjured.

24. As the French found it necessary to halt after this calamity, they resolved to rest at Attalia, a town on the

sea-coast, garrisoned by the Greek Emperor. The gates of the town were closed against them, and the crusaders prepared to besiege it and punish their faithless allies.

25. A pacification, however, was effected; Louis was furnished with ships to proceed to Antioch, and the sick and wounded of the army were left encamped near Attalia under the protection of the governor. These unfortunates were subsequently betrayed by the Greeks, and mercilessly butchered by the Saracens.

26. Louis, on his arrival at Antioch, was honourably received by the prince of that country, who was cousin to the French queen. The first intention of the monarchs was to hasten to Jerusalem, but Eleonora was too pleased with the court of her cousin Raymond to accompany her husband in any further toilsome marches. She remained at Antioch, indulging in the most criminal excesses, while the expedition lasted.

27. The landing of the French at Antioch, even with their diminished forces, created great alarm among the Saracens. Raymond and the King of Jerusalem resolved to take advantage of this terror; the different Christian princes were assembled, and it was determined to lay siege to Damascus*. 28. The army that advanced towards this town was far the best that the Christians had as yet assembled in Palestine. The military orders of the Hos-

* Edessa, the principality of the Courtenays, was thus left in possession of Noureddin. Josselyn de Courtenay made an attempt to rescue the principality, and was for a time successful. Intoxicated with victory he sent an insolent message to the Sultan, but soon after had reason to repent his temerity, being made prisoner by Noureddin, and for his insolence cruelly put to death. The Greek Emperor subsequently purchased the principality from the countess dowager. The whole force of the Palestine Christians was employed to bring the countess and her followers to Antioch. The Greeks did not long retain their purchase, for Noureddin, in the course of a year, annexed the Edessan county to his kingdom of Aleppo.

cus was on the very verge of being taken, when a division about the future possession of the prize broke out in the Christian camp. The Christians of Palestine misled and betrayed their allies; the Saracens took advantage of their misconduct to advance to the relief of the town, and the Christian army was compelled to retire with loss and shame.

30. This was the termination of the second crusade. Louis visited Jerusalem as a pilgrim instead of a conqueror and returned to Europe, as Conrad had done previously having lost a noble army, and having the additional mortification of being dishonoured by his wife's infidelity. Saint Bernard heard of this disgraceful termination with equal surprise and sorrow; he was overwhelmed with reproaches for having proposed the expedition, but he answered his antagonists by saying, with considerable truth that the crimes of the crusaders more than outbalanced the piety of their undertaking, and had justly provoked the vengeance of the Almighty.

Questions.

- 8. Is there any thing remarkable in the circumstances of the death of Courtenay ?
- 9. What became of Edessa ?
- 10. By whom was the second crusade preached ?
- 11. Why was Louis predisposed to join in it ?
- 12. Where did they address the people ?
- 13. What was the effect of their eloquence ?
- 14. What part of his success did Bernard term miraculous ?
- 15. To what difficulties was Conrad exposed on his march ?
- 16. How did he treat the Greek emperor ?
- 17. In what manner did Manuel treat Louis ?
- 18. How were the French affected by the discovery of Manuel's treachery ?
- 19. What treachery was practised on Conrad ?
- 20. How was the battle decided ?
- 21. How were the French affected by this news ?
- 22. What successes had they ?
- 23. By what calamity were they overtaken ?
- 24. How were they treated at Attalia ?
- 25. On what conditions was a pacification effected ?
- 26. How were the French received at Antioch ?
- 27. What town did they resolve to besiege ?
- 28. What prospects of success had they ?
- 29. How were they frustrated ?
- 30. What did Louis do on this failure ?
- 31. In what manner did Saint Bernard account for this calamity ?

CHAPTER VI.

THE THIRD CRUSADE.

Syrian virgins, wail and weep,
 English Richard ploughs the deep !
 Tremble, watchmen, as ye spy
 From distant towers with anxious eye,
 The radiant range of hill and lance,
 Down Damascus' hill advance.

WARTON.

1. **THOUGH** the soldiers of the second crusade had failed in their undertakings, they had created a powerful diversion in favour of the little kingdom of Jerusalem, and enabled its valiant monarch Baldwin III. to make successful resistance to Nouredin, the Sultan of Aleppo. Both monarchs mutually respected each other, and were honourably distinguished above their contemporaries by their humanity, justice, and observance of good faith. 2. On the death of Baldwin Nouredin was advised to take advantage of the consequent confusion, but the generous Saracen replied, " God forbid that I should take advantage of the Christians' misfortune; now that Baldwin is dead, who is it that I should fear?" 3. After the death of Baldwin every possible disorder arose in Palestine; the different feudal chieftains wasted their strength in mutual broils; bands of robbers, headed by titled chieftains, wandered over the country. 4. The princes became execrable in the eyes of the Mussulmans, not only from their rapacity and cruelty, but from their frequent perjuries and infractions of the most solemn treaties, to which they were not a little urged by the clergy, who declared the oaths made to infidels were not binding. 5. The military monks, or Hospitallers, and the Templars, or Knights of Saint John, whose generous rivalry had formerly prompted

them to noble deeds, were now become bitter enemies, and filled the entire of Palestine with rancorous jealousies.

6. While the Christians were thus preparing the way for their own destruction, an enemy more formidable than any they had hitherto encountered, was soon destined to overturn their distracted kingdom. Saladin, the greatest scourge of the Eastern Christians, was descended from the Curds, a Tartar tribe, on the borders of Persia. His father had been one of Nouredin's favourite generals, and assisted by his gallant son had overthrown the dynasty of the Fatimite caliphs in Egypt, and thus put an end to a schism by which the followers of Mohammed had been long divided. After the death of Nouredin he had contrived to procure for himself the throne, and having made himself master of Syria, Arabia, Mesopotamia, and Persia, he turned his arms against the feeble and tottering kingdom of Jerusalem.

7. The King of Jerusalem at this time was Guy de Lusignan, a knight of low rank, who had obtained the throne by the artifices of his wife, Sybilla, daughter of the preceding monarch. The approach of Saladin put an end to the disputes about Guy's title to the throne; and Raymond, Count of Tripoli, who had been his violent opponent, sacrificing resentment to the general good, prepared to join in the defence of Palestine. 8. Saladin advanced into the sacred territories, and laid siege to Tiberias. Raymond advised the confederates to harass him by incessant skirmishes, but to avoid a general engagement, until his army was weakened by drought and famine. This advice was neglected; Lusignan advanced to meet Saladin. 9. On the march his army suffered dreadfully from thirst, which was aggravated by their being obliged to spend the night on a parched soil, beneath a Syrian sky, and annoyed additionally by the heat of a neighbouring forest, to which the Saracens had set fire. 10. The battle of Ptolemais decided the fate of Palestine. The

to Jerusalem, and summoned the town. After a vigorous but ineffectual resistance of fourteen days, Oct. 1187. was compelled to surrender. 12. Saladin behaved with great generosity to his captives; he permitted the queen to retire safely with her train, and held his prisoners to moderate ransom. 13. The conduct of a Christian prince, Bohemond III. Count of Antioch, was disadvantageously contrasted with the generosity of Saladin; not only refused an asylum to the fugitives, but robbed them of all that the noble victor had spared.

14. The news of the fall of Jerusalem excited the grief and indignation of Europe; Pope Urban III. died of excessive sorrow, and his successors had little difficulty in persuading the princes of Europe to undertake a third crusade. Frederic Barbarossa, Emperor of Germany, who had been engaged in a quarrel with the Popes, laid aside his contentions, in order to set out for Palestine. He II. of England, resolved to take the cross, as an atonement for the murder of Thomas à Becket, but was prevented by the rebellion of his children. The King of France, transferring his alliance from Henry to his son Richard, agreed to join in the expedition: and throughout all Europe a

not provoke it by any misconduct on his part. He refused to have an interview with Isaac Comnenus, the Byzantine emperor, and passing over the Straits, he made many conquests as well by his prudence as his valour. 16. After the capture of Iconium, he was advancing southwards, when happening to bathe in the river Cydnus, the coldness of the water proved fatal to him, as it had nearly done to Alexander the Great, more than a thousand years before. His army after his death fell to pieces; a portion of them marched to Antioch under the Duke of Suabia, and being joined by the Asiatic Christians, commenced the celebrated siege of Acre.

17. The death of Henry II. had been accelerated by the misconduct of his undutiful children; but Richard I. on his accession, successfully laboured to efface all unfavourable impressions from the minds of his subjects. Richard's well-known courage had procured him the name of Cœur de Leon, or the lion-hearted. His ruling passion was a thirst for military fame, and to acquire this he united with his rival and better foe, Philip of France, for the recovery of Palestine. 18. Having raised an immense sum from the treasures left him by his father, from the sale of the crown-lands, the great offices of state, and the supremacy over the kingdom of Scotland, Richard appointed a regency, and embarking at Dover, landed at Gravelines, whence he marched through Flanders into Normandy.

Dec. 11,
A.D.
1190.

19. The general rendezvous of the allied forces was held in the plains of Vezelay, near the latter end of June, in the following year. When the two armies were united, they amounted to one hundred thousand of the bravest troops of France and England; a force that would have been irresistible, had not the scene of action been so distant. 20. Instructed by the misfortunes of those leaders who had marched by land into the east, they had wisely

resolved to go by * sea, and for that purpose had provisions. The harbour of Messina in Sicily was appointed as the next place of general rendezvous. Philip marched with his army to Genoa, where he was to embark, and Richmond proceeded to Marseilles, where he expected the fleet.

21. When both fleets arrived at Messina, it was too late to proceed any further with the expedition ; the allied consequence, resolved to spend the winter in Sicily. It was hardly to be expected that the armies of two nations, always rivals, and generally enemies, would have remained six months in the same place without quarrelling with each other, and with the people of the country. Several disputes occurred during the winter, which destroyed the friendship between the two kings so necessary to the success of their enterprise, and laid the foundation of the rancorous hatred with which Philip ever after regarded Richard. 22. At length, in order to extinguish the dissent, and prevent all future animosities, a treaty was concluded, in which, amongst many other articles, Richard was released from his obligations to marry the princess Adelaide, king Philip's sister, to whom he had been contracted, and was left free to marry Berengaria, princess of Navarre, who had some time before gained his affection.

23. The king of England was also involved in a dispute with Tancred, who had lately usurped the throne, and detained the dowager queen, Richard's sister.

prison. 24. Tancred, however, finding himself in no condition to enter into dispute with so powerful a monarch as Richard, immediately released the queen-dowager, and sent her to her brother, with an offer of twenty thousand ounces of gold, as a full compensation for her dower, and an equal sum for the late king's legacy. These offers were accepted by Richard, who became so fond of Tancred, or of his treasures, that he contracted his nephew and heir, Arthur Duke of Brittany, to one of that king's daughters, and received another twenty thousand ounces of gold as her marriage portion. 25. Richard was so impatient to reach the seat of war, that he would not remain at Messina to celebrate his marriage with Berengaria, but sailed from thence with a gallant army, on board of a fleet of about two hundred ships and galleys. A violent storm overtook them in the Levant; the king, with the greater part of his fleet, put into a harbour in Crete. 26. Three vessels were missing, and among the rest that which carried his wife and sister. On enquiry, it appeared that two had been stranded on the island of Cyprus, where the crews were either massacred or made slaves, and that the queen's galley was riding before Limesso, the capital of the island, having been refused admittance into the harbour.

April 10,
A.D.
1191.

27. Richard immediately sailed to Cyprus, and sent a polite request for admission to the prince of the island. Isaac Comnenus, who had usurped the supreme authority in the island, was a weak, vain, and foolish man, of which, indeed, he had previously given decisive proof, by assuming the title of emperor. To Richard's modest entreaty a refusal was sent, couched in terms that would have provoked a far less irritable person than the English monarch. 28. Richard at once landed his army, defeated Isaac in two engagements, and made himself master of the island. This important conquest detained him some time in Cy-

prus, during which he solemnized his marriage with Berengaria, and had her crowned queen of England.

29. Having appointed two of his followers, Richard Camville and Roger de Turnham, governors of the island, Richard sailed for Acre, whither he had previously sent the queen and a large portion of his troops. On his way he met in with a rich Saracen galley, richly laden and formidable armed. Fear of Richard's anger, even more than native valour, stimulated the English to unusual feats of bravery and after a terrible contest she was captured. Enriched with the spoil, and elated with the honours of this triumph, Richard at length anchored in the harbour of Ptolemais where his arrival was anxiously expected.

Questions.

1. Was any advantage derived from the second crusade?
2. What observation did Nouredin make when informed of the death of Baldwin?
3. What ill consequences followed from Baldwin's death?
4. Why were the Moslem princes particularly disliked by the Christians?
5. What disputes took place between the military orders?
6. What new enemy now attacked Palestine?
7. Who were at this time the rulers of Palestine?
8. How did the war commence?
9. What particularly harassed the Christian army?
10. Where was the decisive battle fought?
11. What were the consequences of this battle?
12. How did Saladin treat the vanquished?
13. By whom were they ill-treated?
14. What effect did the news of the capture of Jerusalem produce in Europe?
15. What prince first set out to redeem Palestine?
16. How did Frederick Barbarossa die?
17. What English prince resolved to become a crusader?
18. How did Richard procure money for this expedition?
19. Where were the French and English armies reviewed?
20. What route did they take to Palestine?
21. Did any disputes arise at Messina?

22. On what conditions was peace restored between the rival monarchs?
23. Why did Richard quarrel with Tancred?
24. How were they reconciled?
25. What shews Richard's impatience to reach Palestine?
26. What dangers threatened the females of his train?
27. How was Richard insulted by the emperor of Cyprus?
28. In what manner did he punish Isaac?
29. What remarkable event occurred in the voyage to Acre?

CHAPTER VII.

THE THIRD CRUSADE CONTINUED.

O'er the mixt heap of men and arms made black
 With bloodshed, bounds his steed, of nothing shy,
 The intrepid Soldan saw the coming rack,
 And neither fled nor had the wish to fly,
 But spurred abroad to meet him, and on high
 Raised his Damascus scimeter to smite
 The moment they should meet; thus they drew nigh:
 O what two peers did fortune there unite,
 From the world's wide extremes, to prove their matchless might.

WIFFEN.

THE city of Accho, Ptolemais, or Acre, has been always esteemed one of the most important bulwarks of Syria; to an Englishman it must ever be an interesting spot, from its having been the theatre of Richard's glory, and the scene where the valour of another British hero, Sir Sidney Smith, was displayed during the revolutionary war. It is beautifully and advantageously situated; on the north and east are extensive plains, terminated by a range of hills; the west is washed by the waters of the Mediterranean; and on the south is a large and commodious * bay, running up to the foot of Mount Carmel.

* Into this bay flows the river Belus, where the manufacture of glass was accidentally discovered by some Phœnician mariners, who had kindled a fire among the mingled sea-weeds and sand at the mouth of the river.

June 8, 2. The spectacle that this bay presented on
 A.D. morning of Richard's arrival, was perhaps
 1191. most interesting and magnificent that the
 had hitherto produced. On the walls of Acre stood
 garrison that for twenty-two months had resisted the
 efforts of the crusaders, witnessing the arrival of a
 that surpassed all the fleets of the period in the beauty
 its equipments, and the excellence of its management.
 The plain was assembled the noblest and bravest of
 Europe's chivalry, who were both besiegers and besieged
 a long period, and who looked forward to this new
 the certain means of delivering them from their embarrass-
 ments, and securing their triumph. On the remote
 that hemmed in the Christian camp, were the dusky
 of the Saracens, with their Tartar and Arab auxiliaries
 who had come from their distant deserts to follow
 banners of their beloved hero, Saladin.

There were men from the wilds where the death-wind sweeps;
 There were spears from the hills where the lion sleeps;
 There were bows from the sands where the ostrich runs;
 For the horn of the desert had called its sons
 To the battles of the West.

Richard landed amidst the loudest acclamations of
 Christian army, and wild cries of defiance from the
 Mohammedan hordes. 3. The quarrel that had begun
 at Messina was continued before Acre; the monarchs of
 France and England had never been thoroughly reconciled,
 and the Templars uniting with the former, and the Hospitallers
 with the latter, mixed up their destructive rivalry
 with the disputes between the kings. Separate attacks
 were made on the town by the French and English;
 though both made the most heroic efforts, both were
 defeated. 4. Warned by these calamities, the monarchs
 again renewed their treaty: it was further stipulated
 that while one attacked the town, the other should be in a

ness to repel the assaults of Saladin. The beneficial effects of this union became soon apparent; the sultan's efforts to relieve the town were signally defeated, and the besieged saw their towers undermined, their walls shaken by the battering engines, and every prospect of relief cut off. A surrender of the city now became necessary, and a treaty was signed, which put the Christians in possession of the place.

5. The following were the conditions agreed upon:—
“That the garrison should give up their arms, and be detained as hostages, until Saladin had restored the true cross, liberated 2,500 captives of greatest note, and paid to Richard and Philip two hundred thousand pieces of gold called *bezants*.” 6. Thus ended a siege which for nearly two years had engaged the attention of Europe and Asia, and had cost the lives of six archbishops, twelve bishops, forty earls, five hundred barons, and more than three hundred thousand other men. 7. The conditions of the treaty were not observed by Saladin; he refused to restore the true cross, alleging that he would thus encourage idolatry, and he was either unable or unwilling to pay the sum of money he had promised. Richard on this put the garrison to the sword, except a few, from whom he expected a rich ransom*.

* Richard was always cruel to his prisoners, but this was the fault more of the age than of the person.

The curious old Norman romance of Richard I. asserts, that he actually eat his prisoners. The bard tells us that he acquired this depraved taste from a trick played by his cook. Richard, after a severe fit of illness, longed for some pork; the cook, unable to procure a pig, killed a Saracen, and served up part of his flesh; the king was so delighted with the taste that he ordered the pig's head for supper, and thus the truth was discovered. Richard, instead of punishing the cook, felicitated himself on having come to a country where such excellent meat was to be had in abundance. Soon after this Saladin sent an embassy to Richard about the exchange of prisoners; the ambassadors were invited by the king to dinner, and were astonished to see eight

8. Acre proved nearly as destructive to the crusade as Capua had been to the Carthaginians: the soldiers gave themselves up to every species of licentiousness, and the disputes between rival factions became worse than ever. 9. The King of France, unable to brook the superiority of Richard, and eager to seize on the possessions of the Count of Flanders, whose death he had learned, returned to Europe. Before his departure he placed a large body of his troops, under the command of the Duke of Burgundy, at the disposal of the English monarch, and swore to make no attempt either against Richard or his dominions during his absence*.

Saracen heads served up at table; but let the old minstrel now tell the rest.

Every man then poked other,
They said, " This is the devil's brother,
That slays our men, and thus them eats."

Richard makes a long speech to the ambassadors, after he had made a hearty dinner on this novel dish.

" King Richard shall warrant
There is no flesh so nourissant
Unto an English man,
Partridge, plover, heron, ne swan,
Cow ne ox, sheep ne swyne
As the head of a Sarezyn.
Fat he is and thereto tender:
And my men be lean and slender.
* * * * *
To England will we nought gon
Till they be eaten every one."

The ambassadors, almost terrified to death, returned to their master who was horror-struck at the thought that Richard's appetite had furnished him a new motive for remaining in Palestine.

* On his return home he applied to the Pope to be absolved from the obligation of this oath, but the Pontiff rejected his request with becoming indignation. He had scarcely landed in France, when he prepared to attack Richard's dominions in Normandy, and stimulated the ungrateful John to raise a rebellion against his brother in England.

10. After the departure of Philip, Richard, with great difficulty, persuaded the crusaders to leave the luxuries of Acre, and commence their journey to Jerusalem along the sea-coast. 11. Saladin, at the head of a numerous army, watched all their motions, harassed them with perpetual skirmishes, and displayed in several of his attacks the valour of a soldier as well as the skill of a commander. On the other hand the different orders of knighthood eagerly sought these opportunities of acquiring fame, and innumerable feats of individual courage and prowess are recorded to have occurred on this march; as this was a species of warfare in which the English king particularly excelled, his strength and valour became known to the Saracens, and inspired them with that dread of Melek Ric, for so they called King Richard in their language, which for a long time prevailed in the East.

12. At length these two armies, animated by Sept. 6, the most implacable hatred, inflamed by religious 1191. zeal, and conducted by the two bravest leaders in the world, came to an engagement near Azotus. The right wing of the crusaders was commanded by James D'Auvergne, next to King Richard the most accomplished knight in the army. The left wing was commanded by the Duke of Burgundy, whose courage was rather questionable. The English monarch took the command of the centre.

13. The battle lasted from morning to night. The crusaders were victorious on the right wing, but the left was forced to give ground. The archers, and other light troops, kept up an incessant discharge of missile weapons, in which they were superior to the invaders. Richard with some difficulty restrained the impatience of the cavalry until the quivers of the Saracen archers were almost exhausted: he seized on the decisive moment, rapidly ordered his infantry to wheel behind the cavalry, and commanded the knights to charge. 14. A hurricane could not be more resistless. The Saracens scarce made

field, and fearing that the fortresses must of necessity fall into the hands of the crusaders, dismantled Caesarea, Joppa, and several others; with their garrisons recruited his army, and strengthened the garrison at Jerusalem, which he was resolved at all hazards to defend. 16. On the arrival of the invaders at Joppa they found the town in ruins, and received intelligence that the crusaders were commencing the demolition of Ascalon. 17. Richard immediately held a council of war, and proposed their instant march to Ascalon, insisting on the many advantages that would accrue from the possession of so valuable a fortress; but the Duke of Burgundy, and the French generals, who had been instructed by their treacherous monarch to oppose the English king in every thing, obstinately insisted on rebuilding the fortifications at Joppa, and Richard was compelled to yield a reluctant consent.

18. * During the seven weeks that were wasted in useless labour, opportunities of intercourse between Richard and Saladin presented themselves, and their admiration of each other's noble qualities led to many negotiations.

* Richard was a great lover of falconry, and took every opportunity of indulging in his favourite amusement. The delay at Joppa afforded him leisure to enjoy this obsolete sport, but his heedlessness frequently brought him into great danger. On one occasion he was surrounded by the Saracens, and would certainly have been taken had not William Pratelles, a knight of Provence, thrown himself into the midst of the enemy, exclaiming, "I am Richard of England." Richard rescued the generous Provençal from Saladin at the first opportunity.

acts of courtesy *. 19. A treaty was proposed by which a mixed Mohammedan and Christian kingdom was to be established in the East, and cemented by the union of Saphadin, brother of the Sultan, with Richard's sister, Jane, Dowager-queen of Sicily. 20. This treaty, however, was broken off, principally by the interference of the clergy at both sides. 21. In the beginning of November the crusaders resumed their march towards Jerusalem, rebuilding the ruined castles as they advanced, and being also much retarded in their progress by heavy rains and incessant attacks of the enemy. But when they had overcome all these difficulties, and had reached the neighbourhood of the Holy City, they found that it would be impossible to undertake the siege with their diminished forces. The Templars and Hospitallers, who knew the country, were unanimous in recommending a retreat, and Richard, to his great mortification †, and to the great grief of several of the crusaders, was obliged to give orders for returning towards Ascalon.

22. No march was ever attended with greater calamities than the retreat to Ascalon. Storms, fatigues, and famine combined to break down an army already weakened by their own dissensions; and to increase their Jan. 20, calamities, on their arrival at Ascalon they 1192.

found the place so ruined and deserted, that it afforded them neither food, shelter, nor protection. It cost them three months of incessant toil to repair the fortress; princes, prelates, and chiefs were obliged to join in the labours, Richard himself setting them the example ‡. 23.

* Vide Pinnock's edition of Goldsmith's England, chap. ix.

† He was brought by a friend to a hill, whence the towers of Jerusalem could be seen, but he covered his face with his shield, and refused to look at a city which he was unable to attack.

‡ It was here that Richard insulted a prince, whose subsequent mean revenge consigned the English monarch to a long imprisonment in a

John, and the necessity of his immediate return, if wished to preserve his crown. Astonished at this intelligence, Richard called a council of the nobles and pri of the Christian army, communicated to them the news had received, and explained the necessity of his immediate return to England. 25. They consented, on condition that he should decide between the two claimants for crown of Jerusalem, Guy de Lusignan, and Conrad, King of Montserrat. The latter had been always Richard's personal enemy, and had even entered into a league with Saladin against him; yet Richard left the decision entirely to the council, and when they elected Conrad confirmed their choice, and sacrificed his private resentment to the public peace. 26. Anxious to preserve tranquillity of the country and to make some compensation to the candidate whose claims he had previously supported he presented the kingdom of Cyprus to Guy de Lusignan. 27. Conrad, on hearing the news of his election, prepared to take immediate possession of the throne, but he was murdered in the streets of Tyre, by two followers of *old man of the mountain*, or Prince of the Assassins.

German dungeon. The Duke of Austria refused to join in the

28. On the death of Conrad, Henry Earl of Champagne, married his widow, and was declared King of Jerusalem. By his influence the French and English crusaders were again united at Ascalon, and a second attempt to gain the Holy City resolved on. The army advanced within four miles of Jerusalem, where they remained more than a month, waiting for auxiliaries. 29. During this interval Richard made several successful attacks on the Saracens, in one of which he captured a caravan of immense value.

happiness was at his disposal, and were ready to sacrifice their lives at his command, certain that at the next moment they should revel in the delights of Paradise. On one occasion the Sultan of Persia sent an ambassador to the Scheikh al Gebal, as the Arabians call him, to denounce him, for some crimes committed by his followers; the Scheikh, instead of replying, ordered one of his attendants to stab himself, another to leap from a lofty tower, and a third to precipitate himself into a mountain torrent. They all unhesitatingly complied, and the Scheikh desired the ambassador to recount to the Sultan what he had seen as a reply to his threats. The emissaries of the Scheikh were sent to murder any person who had unfortunately provoked his displeasure; and several princes, both in Asia and Europe, are said to have fallen beneath their daggers.

The religious tenets of the Assassins were a compound of Mohammedanism and the Magian idolatry; they believed in the transmigration of souls, and revered fire as the most significant symbol of the Deity. This strange enthusiasm seems to have prevailed in the East from the earliest periods; the Essenes, the Sicarii, and the Zealots, appear to have held tenets similar to the Assassins. Mohammed, in his Koran, censures a Scheikh who, to secure the devotion of his followers, had laid out a rich garden in imitation of Paradise, and after administering opiates, had transported some of them thither, and persuaded them that through his favour they had obtained a foretaste of heaven. This fiction is by all the Arabian and Christian historians of the middle ages, attributed to the old man of the mountains.

The Assassins originally dwelt in Kurdistan, a province of Tartary, on the borders of Persia, but about the time of the first crusade a body of them obtained possession of the mountains of Libanus, in whose rocky crevices they were safe from the pursuit of Saracens and Christians.

They were called Assassins from *hassa*, an Arabic word, which signifies to kill, but they called themselves *Batheniens*, which signifies illuminated by internal light.

news that Saladin had blocked up Joppa with an immense force, and that the garrison must surrender unless instantly relieved. Richard having ordered the main body of army to advance to its relief by land, proceeded himself by sea with a chosen body of knights. 31. After a fierce engagement, the Saracens* were again routed by the valour of the English chivalry. Two subsequent victories were obtained, and Palestine might still have been liberated, if the French auxiliaries returned; but as they obstinately persisted in their refusal, and Richard's health began to give way to the effects of fatigue and climate, it became necessary to think of peace. 32. A truce was concluded with Saladin for three years, three months, three weeks, three days, and three hours; it was stipulated that the fortifications of Ascalon should be destroyed, that the Christians should retain all the other towns that they possessed in Palestine, and be permitted to perform their pilgrimages to Jerusalem in safety.

33. Saladin, on the conclusion of the treaty, sent provisions of every kind to the British army; he not only protected the pilgrims on their journey to the Holy Sepulchre but treated them with kindness and hospitality; he

gave lordships to some of the princes of the former kingdom of Jerusalem, to compensate them for the loss they had sustained by its destruction. At his death he bequeathed a large sum of money to the poor, and ordered it to be distributed equally to Jews, Christians and Mohammedans, without any regard to their differences of creed.

34. Richard embarked at the port of Acre, followed by the tears, prayers, and benedictions of an infinite multitude, who had seen his valour and felt his bounty. His voyage was most unfortunate; after continuing several weeks at sea, he was shipwrecked near Aquileia; attempting to pass through Germany in disguise he was recognised and thrown into prison by Leopold duke of Austria, who, prompted by avarice or malice, respected neither his rank nor the cause in which he had been engaged*. For the remainder of his brief career we refer our readers to Pinnock's edition of Goldsmith's England, Chap. IX.

Questions.

1. How is Acre situated ?
2. What appearance did it present at the arrival of Richard ?
3. What quarrels took place among the crusaders during the siege ?
4. When did they again combine ?
5. On what conditions was Acre surrendered ?
6. What loss was sustained during the siege ?

* The unfortunate and premature death of Richard is known to every reader of English history, it is thus told in the old Romance :

King Richard reigned here
No more but ten year.
Sithen he was shot, alas !
In castle Gaillard there he was.
Thus ended Richard our king
God give us all good ending !
And his soul rest and roo *
And our souls when we come thereto.

ELLIS'S SPECIMENS OF ENGLISH ROMANCE.

* *Reo*, repose.

7. Were the conditions of surrender observed ?
8. What ill consequences followed from its capture ?
9. Why did the French king return to Europe ?
10. How did Richard act after his departure ?
11. What circumstances occurred on the march ?
12. Where did the two armies engage ?
13. What made the victory doubtful ?
14. How was the contest decided ?
15. How did Saladin act after this defeat ?
16. Where did the Christians hear that Ascalon was dismantled ?
17. How did Richard advise them to act ?
18. What occurred during the repairs of Ascalon ?
19. What treaty was proposed ?
20. How was it broken off ?
21. Why was not Jerusalem besieged ?
22. What calamities occurred in the retreat ?
23. Who deserted ?
24. What news did Richard receive from England ?
25. On what condition was his departure permitted ?
26. How did Richard shew his generosity ?
27. What became of Conrad ?
28. Who was then appointed king of Jerusalem ?
29. How did Richard employ the interval of delay ?
30. What news did he hear at Acre ?
31. Was he successful in raising the siege of Joppa ?
32. For what length of time was a truce concluded ?
33. What proves the noble disposition of Saladin ?
34. Did Richard return home in safety ?

CHAPTER VIII.

THE FOURTH, FIFTH, SIXTH, AND SEVENTH CRUSAD

Yet still destruction sweeps the lonely plain,
And heroes lift the generous sword in vain.
Still o'er her sky the clouds of anger roll,
And God's revenge hangs heavy on her soul.

HEBER.

1. DURING the brief space that Saladin reigned after departure of king Richard, Palestine enjoyed compar

repose, but the death of that Sultan and the accession of the less warlike Saphadin, inspired the Christian princes with the hope of retrieving their losses, and establishing their permanent dominion in Palestine. 2. The A.D. Fourth crusade was patronized by Pope Celestine III. and Henry II. emperor of Germany. The adventurers were for the most part Germans. Under the guidance of the Duke of Saxony a considerable army marched through Hungary, while smaller bands by different routes found their way to Acre. 3. Though the truce that had been concluded with Saladin had long since expired, the Christians and Mohammedans lived together on amicable terms until the arrival of the German adventurers again kindled the sparks of war.

4. Saphadin, perceiving the approaching storm, resolved to anticipate his enemies, and attack the Palestine Christians before the arrival of their European auxiliaries. With this design he marched against Jaffa (or Joppa as it is more properly called), took it by a sudden assault, demolished its fortifications, and thus rendered unavailing the valour and labour of Richard and the former crusaders. 5. Shortly after this calamity, the Duke of Saxony arrived at Acre with his mighty armament, and immediately advanced through Syria to avenge the fall of Jaffa. 6. On the road between Tyre and Sidon he was attacked by Saphadin, the engagement was fierce and bloody, but eventually the Saracens were defeated at every point, and pursued from the field with great slaughter.

7. Had the crusaders taken advantage of the terror which this defeat communicated to the Saracens, the object of their expedition might have been accomplished: the Moslem garrisons fled from the towns, and no army could oppose them in the field. With the usual folly that characterised all these expeditions, instead of advancing towards Jerusalem they laid siege to Thoron. 8. This fortress being built on the summit of a rock could not be taken

9. infuriated by this meditated treachery, they came to withstand every effort, and wore down the enthusiasm of the invaders by their patient obstinacy. Meantime rumours of an approaching army, levied by the sultan of Egypt and Syria, were spread in the Christian camp. A sudden panic seized the German princes, they fled to Tyre; the soldiers followed the example of their leaders and the whole expedition was dissipated at the very moment

Nov. that success seemed certain. The greater part of 1197. the Germans returned home, the garrison was left behind in Jaffa was surprised by Saphadin, totally exterminated.

A.D. 10. The spirit of the crusades was not yet 1200. tinct in Europe; Foulk, a fanatic priest of Normandy in France, succeeded in engaging the French to join a new expedition for the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre. 11. The popes did not, however, take so much interest in these wars as they had done before, for they now began to derive a considerable profit from absolutions granted to those who had assumed the cross, but were unwilling to encounter the hazard of such a destructive war. 12. The crusaders themselves were in some degree changed, religious enthusiasm had cooled, and ambition had

ships, and the rendezvous of the crusaders was fixed in the territories of the republic. The different princes and nobles who had promised pecuniary contributions to the crusaders, were not very ready to perform their promises; in consequence Baldwin was unable to pay to the Venetian Doge Dandolo, the stipulated sum for the fleet. 16. The Venetians then offered to receive military service instead of payment; Zara, a Christian city in Dalmatia, had revolted from the Venetians, and the subjugation of Zara was made a condition for the grant of a fleet. The pope was very indignant at the forces being thus diverted from the true object of the expedition, but he threatened excommunications in vain; Zara was subdued, and after its surrender the forces of the crusaders proceeded towards Constantinople instead of Jerusalem.

17. Isaac Angelus had been driven from the throne of Constantinople by his unprincipled brother Alexis. The son of Isaac, whose name also was Alexis, came to Zara, and offered the crusaders two hundred thousand marks of gold, and the submission of the Greek church to the Romish See, if they would aid him to dethrone the usurper. 18. The soldiers of the crusade eagerly embraced the offer, they sailed to Constantinople, and compelled the effeminate Greeks to restore Isaac to the throne, and to give good quarters to their army until the stipulated price of their services was paid. The treasury of Constantinople was poor, the restored emperor was compelled to melt down the church-plate, and to lay heavy taxes on his people in order to raise such a sum. Before it was paid Isaac died, and his son Alexis succeeded to a throne equally in danger from his subjects and his allies.

19. The severe taxes imposed by Alexis, and the depredations of his Latin auxiliaries, so irritated the Greeks that they revolted against the emperor, and raised to the throne his assassin, Alexis Ducas. 20. This afforded the Latin princes the pretext they had so ardently

desired ; and with numbers inferior to the garrison they laid siege to Constantinople. The Greeks made but a weak resistance, after a few days the city was carried by storm, and the mistress of the Eastern empire fell before the barbarians of the west. All the miseries that a licentious soldiery could inflict on a captured city, were suffered by the Byzantines, all the crimes to which rapine and lust could stimulate were perpetrated by the crusaders. Many of the most valuable works of art, and many of the rarest manuscripts perished in the sack, and the last place where learning had found a refuge could no longer afford it shelter.

21. The fifth crusade terminated in the establishment of a Latin empire at Constantinople. Several of the provinces were severed from the eastern empire ; the Venetians acquired the Morea and Eubœa, and two Greek princes established themselves in narrow territories round Nice and Trebesond, dignifying their petty provinces with the name of empire. The Latins retained Constantinople for nearly half a century, but it was then wrested from them, and the Greek empire re-established.

A.D. 1218. 22. The sixth crusade is remarkable for a change in the operations of the crusaders. Egypt was the theatre of this new war, and the operations of the army were directed by De Brienne, king of Jerusalem, and Pelagius, the Pope's legate. The soldiers were mostly levied in the south of Europe, and were consequently more inclined to be faithful to their prelates than their generals. 23. The first operations of the war were crowned with complete success, Damietta, the key of Egypt was captured and the Sultan, Camel, was so terrified at the loss, that he offered to restore Jerusalem and the neighbouring towns, provided that the crusaders would leave him in possession of Egypt. 24. The king of Jerusalem, and the military orders, would gladly have accepted the offer, but Pelagius threatened excommunication to all who should not advance towards Cairo. 25. The crafty sultan at-

lowed the crusaders to advance a considerable distance into the country, he then cut the reservoirs in which the waters of the Nile are kept, and laid all the plains under water. 26. The crusaders had now got themselves into a situation from which no human power could rescue them; they were obliged to surrender to the Sultan Camel, almost at discretion. 27. The Egyptian Sultan treated De Brienne with great kindness, and as soon as the treaty was signed sent large stores of provision to relieve the famine that prevailed in the Christian camp.

28. Pope Innocent III. was more intent on suppressing heresies in Europe than subduing the Saracens in Asia. He preached up a crusade against the unfortunate Albigenses*, in the south of France, and almost exterminated that hapless people. This war, or rather persecution, lasted nearly twenty years, and was carried on with the most remorseless cruelty.

A.D.

1208.

A.D.

1228.

29. Frederic II., emperor of Germany, beginning to be formidable to the papal power in Italy, it was resolved to get rid of him, by engaging him in a new crusade. John De Brienne was persuaded to give him his daughter in marriage, and resign the crown of Jerusalem in his favour. 30. Frederic II. delayed his expedition for some time, and was excommunicated by Gregory IX. for not going immediately; he set out from Brundisium, and was excommunicated † a second time for not remaining

A.D.

1228.

* The persecution of the Albigenses was one of the most bloody ever recorded. At the storming of Beziers it was proposed to spare some of the garrison, and not massacre Catholics and heretics promiscuously. Even this leniency was prevented by a Cistercian monk, who said, "Kill all, God will recognize his own." Accordingly, every individual in the town, man, woman, and child, were put to the sword.

† Frederic was accused by the Pope of having written the book, *De Tribus Impostoribus*: this book has been answered, reviled, prohibited, and yet it does not appear to have ever existed. The work that appeared under the same name at a later date is manifestly a forgery. The entire transaction between Frederic and the Pope was inconceivably

Europe that the Pope had taken advantage of his absence to attack his Italian dominions. 33. The Sultan gave to Frederic Jerusalem, Nazareth, Bethlehem, and Sidon and concluded with him a truce for ten years. 34. Frederic proceeded to Jerusalem, but no prelate would attend the coronation of an excommunicated prince, and Frederic placed the crown on his own head. On his return to Acre he was openly insulted by the clergy, and exposed to great dangers from the treachery of the Templars and Hospitallers. 35. The Sultan sent Frederic a letter that had been transmitted to him by the knights, offering to betray Frederic to the Saracens. Frederic compelled the clergy and knights to treat him with respect, and having re-established the kingdom of Palestine, returned to Europe to fight out his quarrel with the Pope.

36. The French, under the King of Navarre, and the A.D. English, commanded by Richard, Earl of Cornwall, 1239. were the next who advanced against the Sultan.

ridiculous, they exhausted the Revelations in finding types and allegories for each other, and Frederic seems to have been the better of the two. A priest in Paris, who was ordered to publish the bull of excommunication, made the following sensible speech to

racens in Palestine. 37. The King of Navarre was defeated, but the prudence of the Earl of Cornwall restored the power of the Christians; taking advantage of the terror which the name of Richard still inspired in the East, and of the disputes between the Sultans of Syria and Egypt, he chose to proceed by negociation. 38. Peace was concluded on conditions even more favourable than those that had been granted to Frederic; but the Earl of Cornwall, like the Emperor, found that the knights of Palestine were any thing but grateful to their deliverer, and as soon as the peace was signed he returned to Europe. A.D. 1241.

Questions.

1. Who succeeded Saladin?
2. By whom was the fourth crusade promoted?
3. What was then the state of Palestine?
4. How did Saphadin act when he heard the news?
5. Who came to the assistance of the Christians?
6. Did he obtain any victory?
7. What error did he commit?
8. Where is Thoron situated?
9. Why did not the crusaders capture it?
10. Who preached the fifth crusade?
11. How were the Popes affected towards it?
12. What change had taken place in the feelings of the Crusaders?
13. Who conducted this expedition?
14. What route did they take?
15. Where did they obtain ships?
16. How did they pay for them?
17. Who next claimed their aid?
18. On what condition was it given?
19. What caused the murder of Alexis?
20. How did the Latin princes act in consequence?
21. How was the Greek empire divided by the conquerors?
22. Who commanded the sixth crusade?
23. How far was it successful?
24. By whom were they prevented from accepting favourable terms of peace?
25. What calamities overtook them?

26. To what terms did they come with the Sultan ?
27. What shows the magnanimity of the Sultan ?
28. What crusade did Pope Innocent promote in Europe ?
29. Who next undertook a crusade ?
30. Why was Frederic twice excommunicated ?
31. What success had Frederic ?
32. Why did he return home ?
33. What were the conditions of the peace ?
34. What insults were offered Frederic by the clergy ?
35. To what danger was he exposed from treachery ?
36. Who next invaded Palestine ?
37. What was their success ?
38. On what conditions was peace made ?

CHAPTER IX.

THE CRUSADE OF ST. LOUIS.

The blood-red banner floating o'er their van,
 All madly blithe the mingled myriads ran ;
 Impatient death beheld his destin'd food,
 And hov'ring vultures snuff'd the scent of blood.

HEBEL.

1. THE peace that followed the seventh crusade lasted more than two years, and was the happiest era in the annals of the Latin kingdom of Palestine. It was interrupted by the arrival of a new and more formidable enemy than had hitherto attacked the Christians. 2. The Turkish dynasty established at Korasm was for a time the greatest Mohammedan power ; it had extended its conquests as far as Syria in one direction, and Tartary in the other, when the celebrated Zenghis Khan came at A.D. 1224. the head of the Mogul Tartars to erect on its ruins another more powerful empire. 3. The Korasmians, expelled from their native land, wandered in search of new settlements, and by the advice of the Egyptian Sultan resolved to seize upon Palestine. The Christians

were unable to stem this overwhelming torrent ; Jerusalem, Nazareth, and all the inland towns were captured, while the cruel victors, sparing neither Christian nor Saracen, made this completely a war of extermination.

4. The Sultan of Damascus united with the Latins to check the progress of the Korasmians ; a battle was fought which lasted two days ; valour and discipline were frustrated by overwhelming numbers ; the Christians, with their Syrian allies, were completely defeated, and the loss of all Palestine, except a few sea-ports, was the consequence.

5. Louis IX. of France, sometimes called Saint Louis, was filled with indignation at the success of the infidels. He levied a gallant army, and having wintered in Cyprus, he proceeded in the spring towards Egypt. 6. Although all his forces had not come up, he landed his troops in the teeth of an hostile army, and defeated the Mamelukes with so much valour, that the garrison of Damietta, which had in a former crusade stood a siege of eighteen months, trusting more to the swiftness of their horses than the strength of their walls, deserted the town, and fled to Cairo. 7. Louis being soon after strengthened by the arrival of fresh troops, among whom were two hundred English knights, advanced towards Cairo. 8. He found the Mamelukes strongly posted behind the canal of Astmoum, and all his attempts to force a passage were for a long time frustrated. 9. At length an Arab was bribed to point out a ford, and the Count D'Artois solicited and obtained the dangerous honour of leading over the van of the Christian army. The Mamelukes were unable to withstand the vigorous charge of the crusaders, and fled in confusion towards Massourah. 10. The Templars and Hospitallers, aware that the Mamelukes frequently pass from the extreme of terror into the most desperate courage, advised the Count to rest satisfied with the advantages that had been obtained : he attri-

buted their caution to cowardice, and madly resolved to push forward to Massourah. 11. The event proved the wisdom of the advice that had been given; the Mamelukes rallied, and met the assailants with the most resolute energy. The inhabitants of the town hurled every species of missile from the tops of their houses on the unfortunate crusaders, and nothing but the rapid advance of Louis, with the whole of the army, saved the vanguard from total annihilation.

A.D. 1250. 12. The results of this unfortunate contest were still more calamitous; the army had advanced beyond the lines of communication with their resources, and the Mamelukes taking advantage of this fatal oversight, posted themselves between Louis and Damietta. The army, after enduring all the miseries of fatigue and famine, were suddenly attacked by the Sultan, and were either slain or made prisoners of war. 13. After enduring many calamities, and encountering many dangers from the fickleness of his captors, Louis was released on the surrender of Damietta * as his ransom, and the payment

* The Queen of France was delivered of a son at Damietta, a few days after she had received the news of her husband's calamity. The only attendant that remained with her was an old knight, who he passed his eightieth year; from him she exacted a promise, that if the Saracens advanced towards Damietta he would cut off her head sooner than permit her to fall into the hands of the infidels; but the subsequent treaty fortunately released her from the necessity of claiming the performance of this promise. The infant was christened John Tristan in allusion to the calamitous circumstances that attended his birth.

“ The salt tears mingling with the milk he drew,
Gave the sad presage of his future years;
The child of misery, baptiz'd with tears.”

Born in one unfortunate crusade, he died in another; he fell a victim in the bloom of youth to the pestilence, which destroyed so many of the French army at the siege of Tunis.

of ten thousand gold bezants for the redemption of the relics of his army.

14. After this calamity Louis retired to Acre, and endeavoured, not without success, to remedy by negociation the evils of the war. Taking advantage of the troubles in Egypt, and the dissensions between the different Moslem princes, he succeeded in obtaining a remission of part of the stipulated ransom; and the burial of the mangled limbs of his soldiers, which the Mamelukes, in barbarous triumph, had fixed upon the walls of Damietta. 15. The death of his mother, whom he had left regent during his absence, compelled him to return to Europe, which he did, like the English Richard, without having visited Jerusalem.

16. The kingdom of Palestine was now rapidly A.D. sinking beneath the power of the Saracens, and 1259. yet the knights whose duty it was to defend it, were wasting their strength in mutual contentions. The disputes between the Hospitallers and Templars at length broke out into open war; a battle was fought, and the red-cross knights were completely defeated; but as fresh Templars soon after came from every part of Europe, the supremacy of the white-cross was far from being established.

17. The Mamelukes incessantly harassed the A.D. Latins; fortress after fortress fell into their hands; 1263. and though the knights displayed great valour and constancy, it soon became manifest that their efforts must be fruitless. The garrison of Azotus, consisting only of ninety Hospitallers, sustained a vigorous siege, and the Mamelukes, entering the fortress, trampled on the bodies of every defender of the castle. 18. The fate of the garrison of Saphoury was still more lamentable; six hundred Templars, under the command of the Prior of their order, after a heroic resistance were compelled to surrender. 19. The barbarous victor, in defiance of the capitulation, gave

them only one night to deliberate between death or apostasy. Sustained by the preaching of the Prior and two Franciscans they embraced the alternative of martyrdom, and were all massacred.

A.D. 1268. 20. At length the fall of Antioch announced to Europe that nothing but speedy assistance could save the miserable remnant of the kingdom of Jerusalem.

21. Louis again prepared for a new crusade, and Henry III. of England *, who had lately quieted the troubles of

A.D. 1270. that kingdom, sent his son, the gallant Edward, to join in the pious expedition. 22. Louis was induced to land in Africa, where he had some hope of converting the King of Tunis. He obtained some trifling successes, but disease broke out in his army; and having witnessed the death of his son, and several of his dear friends, he died at the age of fifty-six.

23. Edward, undismayed by the death of Louis, pursued his course to Acre, where he landed, with a force of about one thousand knights, and their attendants. The name of Plantagenet was still formidable in Asia, and the remains of the different military orders flocked to his standard. Having defeated all opposition, he advanced against Nazareth, and took the town by storm. 24. The same cruelty that had been shewn at the capture of Jerusalem, in the first crusade, was acted over again here on a smaller scale. The garrison and inhabitants were put to the sword, and the town itself almost destroyed. 25. Edward, like other crusaders, found that the climate was his worst enemy. The soldiers sunk beneath a burning Syrian sun, and pestilence appeared in the camp; at the same time the general nearly fell a victim to treachery. 26. The governor of Jaffa had entered into negotiations with Prince Edward, but being censured by the Sultan of Egypt for his attachment to an infidel, he sent an assassin

* See Pinnock's England, chap. xi.

to murder him in his tent. Edward was lying sick on his couch when he received a blow from the assassin's poisoned dagger. His activity prevented the Tartar from repeating the blow, and the ruffian was seized by the attendants. It has been said that Edward's life was saved by his wife Eleonora sucking the poison from the wound. It is a pity that history contradicts this pretty anecdote, and informs us that Edward owed his escape to the strength of his constitution and the skill of his physician.

27. Soon after this occurrence Edward concluded A.D. a peace with the Sultan of Egypt, and quitted 1272 Palestine for Europe.

Questions.

1. How long did the peace, concluded by the Earl of Cornwall, last ?
2. What misfortune occurred to the Korasmians ?
3. Whither did they direct their course ?
4. Who aided the Christians in the Korasmian war ?
5. What monarch undertook a new crusade ?
6. What success had he ?
7. Whither did he advance from Damietta ?
8. Where did he find the enemy posted ?
9. How did he cross the canal ?
10. What advice was given by the Templars and Hospitallers ?
11. What ill consequence followed from its being neglected ?
12. What calamitous events followed ?
13. On what conditions was Louis liberated ?
14. What subsequent events enabled him to procure better terms ?
15. Why did he return to Europe ?
16. What events took place in Palestine ?
17. Did any thing remarkable occur at the siege of Azotus ?
18. For what is the siege of Saphoury remarkable ?
19. What became of the garrison ?
20. What town of importance was lost soon after ?
21. Who now prepared to relieve Palestine ?
22. How was Louis diverted from his undertaking ?
23. What success had Edward ?
24. How was the garrison of Nazareth treated ?

END OF THE CRUSADES AND LOSS OF THE HOLY LAND.

He said, and on the ramparts' height array'd
His trusty warriors, few but undismay'd ;
Firm-pac'd and slow, a horrid front they form,
Still as the breeze but dreadful as the storm.

1. At length the spirit of crusading was extinct in
rope: the numerous calamities that had been endured
each successive expedition began to produce their effect
and when on some new calamity in Palestine Gregory
preached a new crusade, his appeal was vain. 2. The
treatment of some Egyptian merchants by the Latins
Acre so provoked the Sultan, that he resolved to banish
them totally from Palestine. The Prior of the Hospital
A.D. 1291. saw the coming storm, and went to Italy
to solicit the aid of the Pope. Honorius IV.
then held the pontificate, heard the story with apathy
gave him a body of about fifteen hundred Italians,
with this inefficient force the Prior returned to Acre
only remaining possession of the Christians in Palestine.
3. The forces of the Egyptian Sultan soon advanced

thers, until at last they began to sink under the fatigues of conquering. 4. The fall of a tower opened a practicable breach to the assailants, and the countless hordes of Mamelukes and Tartars rushed forward to the assault; they were frequently repulsed by the knights, but still they returned to the charge, and at length succeeded in establishing themselves on the ramparts. A few of the Christian leaders had previously escaped to Cyprus, but the greater part remained, resolved to defend their post in every extremity. 5. The last struggle was dreadful and decisive; the Christians on every side were overwhelmed by numbers: of the Hospitallers only seven escaped. A body of the Templars forming into a compact and close quadron, forced their way through the hostile ranks, and obtained from the Sultan, by their valour, a safe conduct. 6. But misfortune still pursued them; unable to bear the insolent triumph of the Saracens, they got involved in a quarrel with the victorious army, and were all destroyed. 7. The Mamelukes, at their entrance, set fire to the town, and the wretched inhabitants fled to the ships in the bay; but even the elements seemed to combine for their destruction: a dreadful storm drove the vessels against the shore; some were drowned, the greater part who escaped the waves fell by the swords of the Egyptians, and very few survived to tell the tale of their calamity in Europe. 8. The Templars were the last Christians who fought for the possession of Palestine; they attempted to seize a fortress on the coast, where they might wait the arrival of succour from Europe; but the attempt was frustrated, and the Holy Land fell completely into the power of the Mahomedans.

9. The popes, whose influence had first kindled these wars, were the principal persons in preventing their repetition. Their avarice in persuading crusaders to commute personal service in the war for a sum of money paid into the treasury of St. Peter, threw, even at that period, some

suspicion on their motives. Besides, crusades were preached up against every person who in any way offended the papacy: the destruction of heretics was esteemed equippable with the destruction of infidels, and therefore the cross were employed to extend the papal power in Europe, which the popes justly thought of greater importance to themselves than the existence of a Christendom in Asia. 10. Ambition of military glory induced many European princes to form resolutions of making another effort in Palestine; but the wars in Europe were sufficient to satisfy their ardour and employ their arms. Vows to go on a new crusade continued to be made another century, but no steps were taken for their performance.

11. The Knights Hospitallers, or knights of St. John, obtained possession of the island of Rhodes, and subsequently of Malta, which they retained to the beginning of the present century.

12. The Templars met a worse fate; their extensive possessions excited the cupidity of Philip the Fair, king of France, and being seconded by Clement V., a pope devoted to his will, he commenced a fierce and cruel persecution of the red-cross knights through his extensive dominions. The most abominable and improbable charges were brought against them; rewards offered to their accusers, and all who ventured to assert their innocence, were put

A.D. the torture. With such a mode of trial their condemnation was certain; fifty-nine knights were burned alive in France, all of whom protested their innocence, and that of their order, with their last breath. Every where through Europe their monasteries were suppressed, and their property seized. Thus perished an order that had, for a time, been looked upon as the bulwark of Christendom, and which numbered among its members the offspring of the noblest families in Europe.

13. In closing the history of the crusades, it is perhaps

necessary to say a few words both as to their causes and effects. The rapid conquests of the Mohammedans made some species of union between the European princes necessary; the valour of Charles Martel had rescued the west of Europe, but there was no protection for the east; Palestine might have been made the bulwark of Greece, and Jerusalem have formed the protection of Constantinople, and it is probable that Gregory VII. had some such design in view, when he proposed an union of the European princes. 14. But though the hope of giving political security to Europe may have actuated some of the Roman pontiffs, there are no traces of any such wisdom among the crusaders themselves: superstition alone actuated the lower ranks; an avaricious desire of obtaining lands in Palestine, or a thirst for military glory, seems to have had more influence on the leaders than religious zeal. 15. The crusades were unjustifiable wars, because the Saracens had at this time ceased from pursuing their conquests; they were impolitic because they wasted the flower of European chivalry in a country where the Saracens were the least dangerous of their opponents.

16. The effects of the crusades appear to have been much exaggerated; some assert that they impeded civilization; others maintain that most of the improvements subsequently made in Europe, originated from these wars. The influence of the crusades on society must have been small, when there is such room left to dispute the nature of its effects. 17. The principal improvement that they introduced was an increase of strength and consequence to the middle classes of society. The barons, eager to join in these expeditions, sold their seignorial rights to their tenantry, and cities which had previously been protected by some neighbouring lord, were compelled to combine for mutual defence. Hence arose free cities and their franchises, institutions to which Europe mainly owes the establishment of the principles of rational freedom. Com-

the Tartar hordes, and the enemies with whom the saders contended were deeper sunk in barbarism themselves.

19. Even were these advantages greater, they were more than compensated by the furious zeal for religious persecution which these wars engendered. The efforts that were drawn against the infidels, as enemies of Christ, were soon directed against those whom the Pope called the enemies of the church; the Saracens in Asia, the Albigenes in Europe, were equally threatened extermination, and the most execrable perfidy and cruelty was shewn to both; inhuman massacres were perpetrated in the name of a God of mercy, and faith was brought forward the pretended interests of a religion of peace. Traits of chivalrous heroism and generous devotion, splendid colouring to this interesting period; but when we examine the picture closer, we find its details mingle many horrors and many crimes.

Questions.

1. How is it proved that the spirit of crusading was becoming

9. How did the conduct of the Popes serve to extinguish the spirit of crusading?
10. Why did ambition of military fame cease to influence new adventurers?
11. What became of the Knights Hospitallers?
12. What was the fate of the Templars?
13. Why were the Europeans afraid of the Saracens?
14. What were the motives of the crusaders?
15. Were these wars justifiable?
16. How does it appear that their effects have been exaggerated?
17. What was the greatest improvement they produced?
18. How does it appear that they did not benefit science?
19. What great evil did they introduce?

CHAPTER XI.

HISTORY OF EUROPEAN COMMERCE WITH INDIA BEFORE THE DISCOVERY OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

All riches, wealth, from China to the Nile,
All balsams, fruit and gold, on India's bosom smile.

LUSIAD.

1. THE rich productions of India have, from the earliest ages, been sought after with avidity by the inhabitants of less favoured climes, and the nation that has obtained possession of its commerce has been ever the most wealthy and the most powerful. The Arabs appear to have been the first who traded with India; for in the most ancient records we find them supplying spices which their own country does not produce, to the neighbouring nations.
2. The Egyptians were early attentive to commerce: the history of Sesostri is too uncertain to supply any accurate information how the connection which he is said to have made between Egypt and India was established; but we have ample proofs that this connection did exist from the remotest ages, and that the productions, the wealth, the

learning, and in some degree the customs of Hindoostan were imported into Egypt.

3. The Phœnicians were the first mariners who navigated the European seas, and acquired wealth by commerce. They could not long remain ignorant of the value of the Indian trade, and accordingly we find them each exerting themselves to obtain a participation in its profits. They expelled the Idumeans, a tribe of Arabs, from some towns that they possessed on the north-east of the Red Sea, and soon commenced a spirited traffic with India.

4. About the same time, David and his son Solomon seem to have turned their attention to commerce; the former entered into alliance with the Phœnician king, Hiram, and the latter sent out a naval expedition from the ports of the Red Sea, and provided means on the other side of his dominions for an over-land communication with India. The facilities afforded by the rivers Euphrates and Tigris for the transportation of commodities, made Mesopotamia a wealthy country at a very early period; but between this and Palestine there was a sandy desert, whose passage was attended with difficulty and danger. To secure an intermediate station, where a supply of water could be obtained, Solomon erected Tadmor on a small oasis; and this city, subsequently called Palmyra, though situated in the midst of a desert, became the capital of a rich and flourishing kingdom, which retained its independence when all Syria had submitted to the Romans. 6. But the division of Solomon's kingdom in the reign of his inglorious successor, and the consequent wars in Palestine, prevented the Jews from becoming a commercial people, and gave the Phœnicians a monopoly of the Indian trade. 7. Tyre became the depôt of both the eastern and western commerce; "her merchants were princes, and her prince merchants;" and there, for a long series of years, the wealth of the world seemed to have centered. But the riches of Tyre were more than counterbalanced by the

crimes of its inhabitants ; its profligacy brought down punishment upon it, and Alexander, the appointed minister of divine vengeance, destroyed its glories for ever.

8. Darius Hystaspes is said to have subjugated part of India, and to have derived from thence one-third of his entire revenue ; but the accounts handed down concerning the Persian commerce are so brief and imperfect, that it is impossible to discover its nature and extent. 9. The conquests of Alexander were the great source of the future intercourse between Europe and India ; he first made the Greeks practically acquainted with the inexhaustible treasures of the East, and established a chain of posts to facilitate commerce. 10. But at his death all these advantages were lost. The provinces of Upper Asia availed themselves of the wars among his successors to assert their independence ; and Seleucus, to whom that portion of the empire had been assigned, was a bad statesman, though a good general, and neglected the interests of commerce because he was ignorant of its advantages.

11. Of all Alexander's successors, Ptolemy alone possessed the great qualities of his illustrious master ; under him and his successors Egypt became distinguished for its commerce and consequent wealth, and Alexandria eclipsed the riches and glory of Tyre. 12. The route of Indian commerce under the reign of the Ptolemies was coastwise, round the Arabian peninsula. Goods were then landed a little above the entrance of the Red Sea, and conveyed thence by caravans to the Nile. 13. It seems surprising that the Seleucidæ did not avail themselves of the superior facilities afforded them by the possession of the Persian Gulf to rival the commerce of Egypt, and the neglect of this valuable possession proves how great was the incapacity of the Syrian princes. 14. The difficulties that the caravans encountered in the deserts of the Thebaid, induced Ptolemy Philadelphus to construct a canal between the Nile and the Red Sea, as we have mentioned in a

previous part of this volume, (see page 150), but the bulk of the merchants; and the difficult navigation of the Red Sea, made this a useless undertaking.

A.D. 15. When Egypt fell under the power of the

40. Romans, the inhabitants still continued to trade in commerce, and about eighty years after its subject Harpalus made a great improvement in their navigation by ceasing to course round the Arabian peninsula, and steering straight across from Babylon to the coast of Malabar.

16. After the fall of the Western Empire, we find Constantinople taking the lead as the seat of Indian commerce.

17. The principal commodity imported was China silk.

A.D. for at that period silk was not produced in Europe.

551. but two monks, who had been sent into Persia by Justinian, concealed some eggs of the silk-worm in the cane and conveyed them to Constantinople, where they were hatched by artificial heat, and from this stock derived all the silk establishments in the south of Europe.

18. There were two routes for Indian commerce at this period. The first and easiest was through the Persian Gulf, up the Euphrates or Tigris, and thence to the coast of the Mediterranean across the Syrian deserts. But the

A.D. foundation of Bassorah on the Euphrates, by the

640. Caliph Omar, and the establishment of the kingdom of Ormuz, at the mouth of the Red Sea, threw the road into the hands of the Mohammedans.

19. The second and more popular route was to go nearly to the sources of the Ganges or Indus, thence proceed overland to the south-east of the Caspian sea, and thence to the Black sea, where Trapezus or Trebizond was

A.D. a convenient depôt for commerce. 20. The

1302. states in Italy became distinguished for commercial enterprise in the middle ages. Amalfi, which had been founded by a few Roman refugees, set them an example.

21. The discovery of the mariner's compass by A.D. a native of Amalfi, A.D. 1302, prepared the way 1302. for the great changes which were to take place in the ensuing century; but the people of Amalfi were not destined to monopolize the advantages of the commercial roads they had opened, and soon found successful rivals in the Venetians.

22. This celebrated city, which for a time merited the appellation "Rome of the ocean," is built on several small islands at the northern extremity of the Adriatic, and had been long conspicuous for the valour and naval skill of its inhabitants. 23. When the Huns, under Beren- A.D. garius, invaded Italy, the Venetians not only 903. resisted the barbarians, but almost annihilated their army. And in the war between Pope Alexander and Fre- A.D. derick Barbarossa, the Venetians hospitably enter- 1173. tained the Pope, and by a signal defeat of the German navy greatly contributed to the success of the war. 24. In consequence of this victory, the Pope presented the triumphant Doge, or chief magistrate of Venice, with a ring, saying "take Ziani this ring, and give it to the sea, as a testimony of your dominion, and of your having subjected that element even as a husband subjecteth his wife." From this period, during the continuance of the Venetian republic, the ceremony of marrying the sea was annually performed by the Doge.

25. The Venetians very soon engrossed the commerce of the East; they obtained this advantage not merely from their superior spirit of enterprise, but also from their greater liberality; while the other states thought that it would be impious for any Christian community to form any alliance with Mohammedan infidels, the citizens of Venice early entered into treaties with the Saracens, and were frequently their allies. 26. In the Fourth Crusade the Venetians had assisted in establishing the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem (see page 228,) and thus succeeded in extorting

the Italian commercial states to greater exertions. Lombards carried the produce of the East from Italy to Bruges in Flanders, the great Hanseatic depot, and thence they were distributed over Europe.

28. The Latin kingdom of Constantinople did not more than half a century, and when it was overthrown, the Greeks, in return for the assistance that had been given them by the Genoese, bestowed on the citizens of the republic the suburb of Constantinople called Pera, and the town of Caffa in the Crimea or Tauric Chersonese. The route of Indian commerce changed then from south-western to the northern shores of the Caspian; ascending the Volga there was only a necessity for a portage from thence to the Don, and thus through the sea of Azou to Caffa. 30. But notwithstanding all these advantages, the superior wisdom of the Venetian government enabled its subjects to compete successfully with the Genoese. They entered into alliance with the sultan of Syria and Egypt, and established consulships at Alexandria and Damascus. To increase their knowledge of Eastern countries, they sent out their first great traveller Marco Polo, whose discoveries in some measure promoted those of Gama and Columbus.

ussia and the north of China. 32. But the pride of the Venetians excited the hostility of other nations; her power was impaired and her resources exhausted by the powerful league of Cambray, and at the same time the discoveries of the Portuguese diverted the stream of Indian commerce into a new channel, and thus irretrievably ruined the trade of Venice.

Questions.

1. Who appear to have been the first people that engaged in commerce with India?
2. Why is it probable that there was an early connection between Egypt and India?
3. How did the Phœnicians obtain ports on the Red sea?
4. What Jewish sovereigns attended to commerce?
5. What is the history of Palmyra?
6. Was commerce subsequently cultivated by the Jews?
7. What is the history of Tyre?
8. Did any Persian monarch subdue part of India?
9. How were the Greeks made acquainted with India?
10. Were Alexander's expectations realised?
11. Did any of his successors cultivate commerce?
12. What route did the trade between Egypt and India follow?
13. Who neglected favorable commercial opportunities?
14. Did Ptolemy undertake any work to facilitate commerce?
15. What improvement did Harpalus make?
16. When did Constantinople become commercial?
17. How was the silk-trade introduced into Europe?
18. Which was the first route between India and Constantinople?
19. Which was the second?
20. What Italian republic first became commercial?
21. Was any important discovery made at Amalfi?
22. Describe Venice.
23. In what wars were the Venetians distinguished?
24. Did any curious ceremony result from these wars?
25. How did they obtain commercial pre-eminence?
26. What advantage did they obtain in the Fourth Crusade?
27. When was the Hanseatic league established?
28. How did the Genoese obtain superior commercial advantages?
29. Did the route of commerce change?

THE DISCOVERY OF THE PASSAGE ROUND THE CA GOOD HOPE.

Now swells his canvas to the sultry line,
With glitt'ring spoils where Indian grottoes shine;
Where fumes of incense glad the southern seas,
And wafted citron scents the balmy breeze.

TICKELL.

1. THE Portuguese, who were destined to open the
merce of India to Western Europe, were but newly
A.D. blished as a nation. The Mohammedans
713. had been invited into Spain by Count Juli
avenge the injury his daughter had received from Ro
the Gothic king, had established powerful kingdoms
the south and west of the peninsula, and seemed like
no very distant time, to annihilate the small remains
A.D. Christian power. 2. *Alonzo, king of Casti
1087. membering that it was to the gallantry
knights that Charlemagne had been indebted for the
servation of France from the Mohammedan inv
prudently resolved to imitate his example, and to
from chivalry that aid which policy could not p
3. He demanded leave of Philip I. king of France

other European sovereigns, that volunteers from their dominions might be allowed to distinguish themselves under his banners against the infidels. His demand was no sooner known, than crowds of gallant knights and adventurous barons flocked to his standard, and Alonzo was every where victorious. 4. Honours and rewards were bestowed on these champions, to the bravest of them, Count Henry, the youngest son of the Duke of Burgundy, Alonzo gave his daughter in marriage, with the sovereignty of the countries south of Galicia as a dowry, commissioning him to extend his dominion by the expulsion of the Moors.

5. The bravery of Count Henry, and the splendid victories of his son Alonzo, whom his soldiers in the moment of triumph hailed king of Portugal on the battle-plain of Ourique, established Portugal as a separate kingdom, and gave it a place among the nations of Europe.

6. Continual victories gave the new state constant accessions of strength and glory, interrupted only during the short and dishonoured reign of Fernando the Careless.

7. The accession of Don John I. restored the former spirit of Portugal, he was wise, learned, brave, and fortunate; above all he was fortunate in his family: his sons, Edward and Pedro, were distinguished by their skill in politics, while the mathematical genius of Don Henry was directed to the improvement of navigation.

8. The navy of Portugal had been the principal means by which she had acquired an ascendancy over the Moors, and Don Henry saw that this superiority could be retained only by the same means that had led to its acquisition.

9. For this purpose he solicited and obtained from his father the command of the Portuguese forces in Africa, and erected, on a spot supposed to be the Promontorium Sacrum of the Romans, the town of Sagrez, by far the best planned and best fortified of any belonging to Portugal.

10. Naval adventurers were invited to assemble at this

harbour from every part of the world, and expeditions were

A.D. sent out to examine the western coasts of Africa,

1419. in one of which the island of Madeira was discovered, which soon became one of the most valuable Portuguese colonies. As each expedition endeavoured to surpass the preceding, a spirit of emulation was produced, which soon made the Portuguese acquainted with the greater part of the coast of Western Africa. 11. These discoveries proved the falsehood of an opinion entertained by the celebrated geographer Ptolemy, that Africa widened in a direction to the west, and that the sea was completely shut out near the equator. It is not easy to reconcile the existence and universal belief of this theory with the fact of the voyage undertaken by command of Pharaoh Necho (see page 4), and it is not known whether Ptolemy was ignorant of the history, or like many other writers sacrificed facts to some favorite theory.

12. The knowledge that Africa, after passing Cape Verd, tended eastwards, convinced Don Henry that a pas-

A.D. sage by sea to India would eventually crown his

1463. labours. He died in the sixty-seventh year of his age, in his own town of Sagrez, whence he had not moved for many years, except when called to court on any state emergency gratified in the moment of his dissolution with the certain prospect that a route to India would soon be discovered, and a road opened for the universal propagation of Christianity, and the civilization of mankind.

13. There are few characters in history on whom the mind can dwell with so much complacency as that of Don Henry—studious, pious, and humane, his whole life was spent in active endeavours to benefit his country and mankind. The extension of the Portuguese commerce was only a secondary object compared to his anxiety for the diffusion of Christianity; unlike many of that and subsequent ages, his zeal was unalloyed by bigotry, he advocated persuasion rather than persecution, and punished

any of his officers who ill-treated the natives of the newly discovered countries. The crimes of the Spanish adventurers in the new world have procured them the merited execration of posterity, but the virtues of Don Henry entitle him to the gratitude and admiration of all future ages.

14. The progress of discovery was slow until the A.D. accession of John I. In his reign Bartholomew 1468. Diaz doubled the southern extremity of Africa, and discovered a small river which he named *del Infante*, on the eastern side. On his return he encountered such tempestuous weather that he named the south point of Africa the *Cape of Tempests*, but the Portuguese monarch, on the return of Diaz, convinced of the important consequences of the discovery, more appropriately called it the *Cape of Good Hope*.

15. The death of John II., whose only mistake A.D. was the rejection of the services of Columbus, did 1497. not stop the spirit of enterprize. 16. Columbus had now returned from his first voyage, and was supposed to have discovered the western extremity of Asia, an error which long prevailed in Europe; the Portuguese, anxious to pursue their own discoveries, and roused to emulation by the success of their neighbours, eagerly hastened to complete their great designs. Emmanuel, the reigning monarch of Portugal, inherited the spirit and views of Don Henry; he fitted out three sloops of war and a store ship, containing only 160 men in all, and entrusted the command to Vasco de Gama.

17. On the 8th of July Gama left the Tagus, and after encountering and escaping the dangers of tempest and mutiny, doubled the Cape on the 20th of November. 18. As he advanced northwards he came on the traces of the Mohammedan traders, who had hitherto kept undisturbed possession of the commerce of the Indian ocean.

19. The cunning and treachery of the Moors was more

to be dreaded than their force, and it was only by providential interference that Gama was saved from their machinations. At length he arrived safely at the city of Melinda, where the monarch received him hospitably, and furnished him with a faithful pilot to direct the course of the vessels to Calicut. 20. The vessels then proceeded northwards, and soon crossed the line; the joy of the Portuguese sailors when they recognized the constellations of the northern hemisphere, is indescribable; they were, from henceforth, as submissive and obedient to their great commander as he could desire.

21. In the beginning of May, Gama, for the first time, saw the distant mountains of India, and soon after dropped anchor in the harbour of Calicut. By the same good fortune which had attended him through the entire voyage, he found here a Moor named Monzaida, a native of Tunis, well acquainted with the Spanish language. By means of this friendly interpreter he was enabled to hold intercourse with the native princes of India, and to discover the arts by which the Moors laboured to destroy him. 22. The Zamorim, or king of Calicut, was a weak and capricious sovereign, divided between hopes of gain by this new commerce, and dread of the Moors, with whose power he was better acquainted. 23. After a tedious scene of perfidies, defeated by the straight-forward firmness of Gama, the fleet prepared to return, and Gama took with him six Indian noblemen, whom he had seized as hostages. 24. In the voyage homeward he again enjoyed the hospitality of the king of Melinda, and doubled the Cape without accident. His brother, whom he loved with the most tender affection, unhappily fell sick on their return, and de Gama preferring an attendance on his brother to the honours that awaited him in Lisbon, remained by his sick-bed at Terceira, leaving the fleet to pursue its voyage homeward. 25. Cuello, the second in command, no sooner perceived the absence of Gama than he was about to sail again from the Tagus

in search of his beloved commander, and was only prevented from exhibiting this specimen of true friendship by the command of his sovereign.

26. The conduct of the Portuguese in every respect presents an honourable contrast to that of the Spaniards; the commanders were influenced by no petty jealousy; Gama never experienced any of the envy and ingratitude which Columbus felt so bitterly; the conquests of the Portuguese were unsullied by treachery and bloodshed, and they were kind to the native inhabitants wherever they formed a settlement.

Questions.

1. Why did the Mohammedans invade Spain?
2. How did Alonzo resolve to act?
3. Did he succeed?
4. How did he reward Count Henry of Burgundy?
5. When was Portugal erected into a kingdom?
6. In whose reign did Portugal retrograde?
7. By whom was its prosperity restored?
8. Which of the Portuguese princes paid particular attention to naval affairs?
9. Did he found any town?
10. Were any discoveries made?
11. What opinion of Ptolemy was thus proved false?
12. At what age did Don Henry die?
13. What was his character?
14. By whom was the Cape of Good Hope discovered?
15. What error did King John commit?
16. Did any discovery made by others rouse the Portuguese?
17. When did Gama sail from the Tagus?
18. What enemies did he meet after doubling the cape?
19. From whom did he receive hospitable treatment?
20. What event delighted Gama's crew?
21. What success had Gama in India?
22. How was he treated by the Zamorim?
23. How did he escape?
24. What affliction did he endure in his voyage home?
25. Was any instance of affection to Gama shewn by Cuello?
26. How is the conduct of Portugal contrasted with that of Spain?

CHAPTER XIII.

PORTUGUESE AND DUTCH CONNECTION WITH INDIA.

The wealthy marts
Of Ormuz and Gombroom, whose streets are oft
With caravans and tawny merchants throng'd
From neighbouring provinces and realms afar.

DYER.

1. THE Spaniards and Portuguese were anxious to have the authority of the Church to sanction their new acquisitions, and the Pontiffs were just as anxious to exercise their prerogative, since by giving away what did not belong to them, they in fact acquired empire for themselves.

A.D. 1493. 2. Alexander VI., by a memorable edict, decided the controversy between the two crowns, by settling as a line of demarcation, the meridian one hundred leagues west of Madeira, giving to the Spaniards all new discoveries to the west of that line, and to the Portuguese all countries that they might acquire to the east of it; his Holiness was not aware that what is west on one side of the globe is east on the other, and was probably as ignorant in science as he was of the laws of property.

3. In consequence of this strange edict the Portuguese made strenuous preparations for founding their empire in the East, to the great terror of the Venetians, who foresaw their own ruin in the triumph of Portugal; they stimulated the Sultan of Egypt to fit out a fleet in the Red Sea, and to endeavour to drive the intruders from the Indian ocean.

4. The efforts of the Egyptians and Venetians failed, and the Portuguese, under the command of Alphonso Albuquerque, carried terror into the remotest parts of the East, and obtained for some time a complete monopoly of Indian commerce. 5. They made Goa the flourishing capital of their eastern dominions, and erected strong fortresses on the coasts of Malabar and Malacca. They had colonies in

Ceylon and the Malaccas, and had obtained leave from the Chinese to erect Macao in their territory.

6. Not satisfied with all these advantages, the A.D. Portuguese resolved to close up all the former 1514 routes of Indian commerce, by seizing on the most important stations in the Arabian and Persian Gulfs, and in the Red Sea. 7. Infinitely the most important of these was the island of Ormuz. This barren rock, situated at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, was a greater example of the power of commerce even than Venice. Though even destitute of the first necessary of life, fresh water, and incommoded by the saline dust which the drying up of its brackish streams made intolerable in summer, the excellence of its situation made it the capital of a populous and powerful empire. 8. After it fell into the power of the Portuguese it retained its splendour, and twice in the year, when the merchants congregated thither, was the wonder of the world. These annual markets were held in January and September; on these occasions the splendid fictions of eastern romance appeared to be realized; the merchants from Aleppo and Bassorah brought thither the productions of Europe in caravans that frequently numbered three thousand camels and five thousand persons; the Persian merchants came thither in companies of scarcely inferior magnitude, while the port was crowded with vessels laden with the richest productions of the East. 9. On these occasions the streets were carpeted, while awnings projecting from the roofs of the houses kept off the intolerable heat of the sun: the most delicious wines, the most exquisite perfumes, and the most splendid porcelain vases gratified the senses in every street.

10. The Portuguese captured Ormuz, but their enterprises in the Red Sea were unfortunate, still they had acquired an empire more valuable than that of Spain in America, though not so extensive, and might probably have soon ranked among the first powers in the world,

when a fatal event at home suddenly destroyed their prosperity. 11. Sebastian III., king of Portugal, in 1578. intoxicated with the spirit of chivalry, and urged on by that mixture of valour and enthusiasm which had already produced so many calamities in Europe, was obstinately bent on signalizing himself in Africa, and went over to that country to support the pretensions of Muley Mohammed against his rival Muley Moluc. 12. With far inferior forces Sebastian ventured to give battle to the Moors, was completely defeated, and his gallant army almost annihilated. The remainder of the story resembles a tale of romance, and has actually been the subject of several. 13. Twenty years after the battle a stranger appeared at Venice, who called himself Don Sebastian, had actually the stature, manners, and countenance of that prince, and accounted for his re-appearance in a very plausible manner, exhibiting private marks, and relating particular circumstances, which remarkably tended to confirm his identity. He was subsequently made a prisoner in Naples, and sent from thence to Spain, but never was heard of afterwards. It is difficult to believe that this stranger was really Sebastian, but it is still more difficult to credit the explanation given by his opponents, that he was a potent magician. 14. In consequence of the troubles that ensued in Portugal, on the disappearance of Sebastian, Philip II. of Spain was enabled to unite that country to his own dominions, and thus acquire the mastery of the entire peninsula.

15. While Philip was thus gaining a new kingdom, a large and very important portion of his dominions was successfully engaged in shaking off the Spanish yoke, and asserting their independence. The Seven United Dutch Provinces had been goaded into rebellion by the cruelty of their Spanish taskmasters, and had achieved the triumph of their freedom nearly at the time when Portugal was sinking under the yoke of Spain. 16. As the Dutch

were an enterprising commercial people, it is not surprising that after the discovery of the passage round the Cape of Good Hope, they should have endeavoured to obtain a share in the lucrative commerce of India; but the Portuguese resisted their first efforts, and would probably have been able to effect their exclusion, but for the events which have been above related, which broke the spirits of that nation, and made them equally deaf to the calls both of interest and glory.

17. The Dutch united with the Mohammedans in destroying the supremacy of the Portuguese, and succeeded in wresting from them the greater portion of the Indian trade. They were better fitted than any people of the period for commerce, because they felt convinced that their existence as a nation depended on their trade, and because where the aristocracy of birth was unknown, a man's rank in society depended on his wealth.

18. The loss of Ormuz was one of the first symptoms of the declining interests of Portugal in the East; this island was wrested from them by Shah Abbas, one A.D. of the greatest monarchs that Persia has produced, 1622. and the trade was transferred to the town of Bendez-Abassi, called also Gombroon, on the opposite coast; a town whose trade, though by no means insignificant, has always fallen far short of that enjoyed by its predecessor. From this time forward the Portuguese trade with India has continually declined, and it is now nearly extinct.

19. The Dutch had an unenviable superiority over other European nations that traded to the East; they never permitted any regard for personal dignity, morality, or religion, to interfere with their gains, and consequently evaded many difficulties with which more scrupulous nations had to contend. They trampled on the cross in Japan, and performed every slavish ceremony which the degrading despotism of the East thought fit to demand. 20. Batavia, in the Island of Java, was, and indeed is, the capital

of the Dutch possessions in the Indian ocean, but their influence has been long since destroyed, by the wars of the last century, in each of which the Dutch always lost some portion of their Indian acquisitions, until they have at last dwindled into comparative insignificance.

21. The regulation established by Pope Alexander, which we mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, did not prevent the Spaniards and Portuguese from trespassing on the limits which his Holiness, in his wisdom, had assigned them. The Portuguese colonized Brazil in South America, and the Spaniards took possession of the Philippine Islands in the Indian Archipelago. 22. These islands were discovered by Ferdinand Magellan, who having been treated with some disrespect by the court of Portugal, went to Spain, and offered to conduct the Spaniards to these

A.D. islands by a route different from that round the 1519. Cape of Good Hope, and thus take them out of the limits prescribed by the Pope. Magellan arrived at the Philippines, after having discovered the strait which bears his name; and these valuable islands have since remained attached to the crown of Spain.

Questions.

1. Whose sanction did the Spaniards and Portuguese wish to obtain?
2. What limits were assigned them by the Pope?
3. With whom did the Venetians form an alliance?
4. Who commanded the Portuguese in the East?
5. Where had they colonies?
6. Did they make any new attempt?
7. Describe Ormuz.
8. When used this island to exhibit great magnificence?
9. How was it then laid out?
10. Where did the Portuguese fail?
11. Did Sebastian engage in any foolish expedition?
12. Was he successful?
13. Is there any strange story connected with this event?
14. What was the consequence of his disappearance?

15. Did any nation at this time shake off the Spanish yoke?
16. What were the next efforts of the Dutch?
17. With whom did the Dutch unite?
18. What became of Ormuz?
19. How were the Dutch well fitted for eastern trade?
20. What was the capital of their eastern possessions?
21. Had the Spaniards any Indian colony?
22. By whom were these islands discovered?

CHAPTER XIV.

BRITISH CONNECTION WITH INDIA.

But now a purchase to the sword she lies,
Her harvests for uncertain owners rise;
Each vineyard doubtful of its master grows,
And to the victor's bowl each vintage flows.

ADDISON.

1. SIR FRANCIS DRAKE, who had been sent out by A.D. Queen Elizabeth, circumnavigated the globe, set- 1577-
ting out by Cape Horn, and returning by the Cape of Good
Hope. From his report and that of some other able men,
the queen became convinced that Indian commerce could
not be maintained effectively by individual exertions. 2.
She therefore incorporated by charter an East India A.D.
Company, which sent out its first adventure with a 1600.
capital of 74,000 pounds. 3. The Portuguese and Dutch
were equally alarmed at the appearance of these new rivals,
and though mutual jealousy prevented them from combin-
ing, their separate efforts greatly crippled the first ex-
ertions of the infant Company. 4. When the En- A.D.
glish applied for permission to establish a factory at 1611.
Surat, the Portuguese threatened that if such permission
were granted, they would burn every town on the coast:
they also attacked the English fleet commanded by Cap-
tain Middleton, but were in the following year defeated in

their turn by Captain Brest, who thus secured for the English a permanent establishment in the East. 5. In 1616. enterprising merchants of England soon after had factories established at Surat, Calicut, Achen, and many other important stations; when the Dutch, taking advantage of James the First's dislike of war, made a vigorous

A.D. effort to expel the British from the East, and in 1619. most of their efforts were successful. 6. But the government at home dreading the consequences of a war with England, agreed to a treaty, by which the spice islands were divided between the two nations. 7. Soon after this arrangement, the Dutch had the hardihood to

A.D. commit a crime whose impunity astonished the 1622. world. The English factors resident at Amboyna were seized, and on a ridiculous pretence of their having entered into a conspiracy against the Dutch authorities, were put to death with the most horrible tortures. 8. Charles I. was more engaged in contesting points of ecclesiastical and civil policy with his subjects at home, than in defending their rights abroad. No notice appears to have been taken of this atrocity, or at best nothing more than ineffectual remonstrance. 9. The Dutch now proceeded to establish their superiority; they bribed the kings of several islands in the Indian Archipelago to destroy the clove and nutmeg trees in their respective dominions, and thus secured for themselves a monopoly of the spice trade.

A.D. 10. The usurpation of Cromwell laid the foundation of the glories of the British navy. His 1651. war with the Dutch destroyed the superiority of the nation by sea; and although there was no condition in the treaty concerning Indian commerce, but that freedom of trade should be respected, the dread of the English, which their naval victories had inspired, soon enabled them to regain their former influence in the East.

A.D. 11. Charles II. soon after his accession to the 1661. throne, confirmed the exclusive privileges of the

East India Company, and procured for them the important island of Bombay, as part of his dowry with the Infanta of Portugal. 12. The jealousy of the Dutch was again excited, and by treacherous arts they obtained the expulsion of the English from Bantam. 13. The Company prepared to revenge this injury, and had an expedition consisting of 8000 men ready to sail, when they were countermanded by an order from the king, who expected that the Company would purchase his permission. The merchants were not willing to gratify the avarice of the monarch, and Charles then applied to the Dutch; from them he received a bribe of one million sterling, and in consequence prevented the expedition from sailing. 14. Nor was this the only injury that the Company endured from the avarice of Charles, he sold the right of trading to several private merchants, and thus rendered the charter of the Company in a great measure nugatory, and almost brought them to the very brink of ruin.

15. The establishment of the Dutch at Batavia, A.D. in the island of Java, prevented the English from 1685. making any attempt to establish themselves in that island, and they settled a colony at Bencoolen, in Sumatra, whose advantages were perhaps superior to those of Batavia. 16. From several causes the finances of the company were now in a very dilapidated state, but such was the confidence of the Indian princes and merchants, that goods to the amount of 280,000*l.* were given A.D. on credit at Surat, and shipped for England. 17. 1689. The dishonourable conduct of Sir Joshua Child had nearly produced fatal consequences from this event. He wrote, as it would appear, on his own individual responsibility, to his brother, the governor of Bombay, desiring him to make such demands on the local government of Surat as were sure to be refused, to take this refusal as a declaration of war, and thus not merely evade the payment of the debt, but also obtain a pretext for seizing on

all the property which a confidence in English honour had caused to be deposited in Bombay. 18. Child executed his brother's orders, but the success of the effort was proportioned to its justice; Aureng-Zib, who then ruled the Mogul empire, was a prince remarkable for promptitude and decision, he at once assembled an army of 20,000 men, and landed in Bombay before the British could prepare for his reception. Passing from the extreme of perfidy to that of cowardice, Child offered unconditional surrender, but the Mogul, anxious to retain the advantage of British commerce, only required payment of the debt, and compensation to the persons whose property had been so unjustly confiscated.

19. The outcry which these proceedings raised in England, combined with a conviction of the impolicy of all monopolies, endangered the very existence of the Com-

A.D. pany; a new association was formed in London, 1698. and for some time the two Companies persevered in a course of rivalry, which had it lasted would probably have terminated in the destruction of both. 20. Finding

A.D. the necessity of combination, the two Companies 1702. at length united, and from thenceforward English commerce began steadily to increase.

21. Nothing remarkable occurs in the history of the English commerce with the East until the breaking out of the French war in 1744: but in the meantime events were occurring in India which made that peninsula a theatre for war between the French and English, such as Sicily had been to Rome and Carthage, where, under pretext of assisting the natives, each party aimed at esta-

A.D. blishing their own dominions. The Mogul Em- 1738. peror saw that the power which had been established by his great ancestor, Timour, must fall to pieces, unless a speedy reform was effected. For this purpose he employed the assistance of the Nizam of Dekkan, a man of powerful mind, but not of very pure principles. The

Nizam, finding that the insolence of the Omrahs exposed him to danger, while the weakness of the sovereign afforded him no protection, applied for aid to the celebrated Nadir Shah, or, as he was afterwards called, Kouli Khan, the formidable sovereign of Persia. 22. Nadir immediately put his army in motion, and advanced into Hindoostan, where, by the artifices of the Nizam, most of the towns were prepared for submission. The Mogul army was defeated and terms of peace agreed on; but while the army of Nadir were peaceably advancing towards Delhi, pursuant to agreement, they were suddenly attacked by the populace, whom the Omrahs had stimulated, and Nadir himself wounded. 23. Such an attack might have roused a less ferocious monarch than Nadir to exact exemplary vengeance, but the effects of his fury were dreadful; Delhi was plundered and almost depopulated, every cruelty that licensed barbarity could invent was practised, and this event is stated to have caused the loss of a million of lives, and the destruction of property to the amazing amount of one hundred and twenty-five millions sterling. 24. The Mogul empire was thus virtually destroyed; the different feudatories, some in name, and all in fact, became independent, while the original natives of the country, the prey of every successive invasion, were exposed to the horrors of uncertainty of masters, in addition to all the evils of slavery.

25. The French East India Company had been A.D. established as early as 1627, but though they had 1744. possession of the two great stations Pondicherry and Chandernagore, they did not derive any great advantage from these important possessions. A little before the commencement of the war of the succession, they had, however, made considerable advances, and possessed a fleet and army of their own: the success and riches of the English colonies excited their envy and cupidity, and they eagerly embraced the first opportunity of endeavouring to destroy their

A.D. rivals. 26. Their first enterprizes were crowned with
1746. success, Madras was taken from the English, and their
city, Pondicherry, successfully resisted every attempt made

A.D. against it ; but eventually the English triumphed by
1748. perseverance, and at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle
both parties were left nearly in the same state that they had
been at the commencement of the war. 27. The successful
leaders of the French were treated at home with signal
ingratitude, La Bourdonnaie, the conqueror of Madras,
was confined three years in the Bastile, and though finally
acquitted, died of a disease he had contracted in prison ;
De Pleix, the defender of Pondicherry, was recalled to
France, and being involved in a law-suit with the India
Company, fell a victim to vexation and a broken heart.

28. During the brief interval of peace between France
and England, the rival companies in the East were engaged
either in secret or open hostilities. The English succeeded
in the wars for the throne of the Deccan, and the ap-
pointment of a nabob in Arcot, principally by the military
talents of Mr. Clive, who had originally been a clerk in the
civil department. 29. It was manifest to every one that
the petty hostilities would eventually terminate in open

A.D. war ; indeed the English had almost commenced
1755. it by fitting out a powerful fleet under Amiral Wat-
son and Colonel Clive, which, though employed to subdue
the pirate Angria, and destroy his fortress at Geriah, was
originally destined to attack the French in the Deccan.

Questions.

1. In what direction did Drake circumnavigate the globe ?
2. What company did Elizabeth form ?
3. Who opposed the English ?
4. How did the Portuguese behave ?
5. What attack was made on the English by the Dutch ?
6. On what conditions was peace made ?
7. What massacre did the Dutch perpetrate ?

8. Why was not this avenged ?
9. How did the Dutch endeavour to monopolize the Spice trade ?
10. By whom was the naval power of England restored ?
11. What island did Charles II. procure for the company ?
12. Did the Dutch make any new attack ?
13. Why did they escape unpunished ?
14. Did the avarice of Charles injure the company in any other way ?
15. What settlement did the English form in Sumatra ?
16. How did the natives shew their confidence in English honour ?
17. What treachery did Child execute ?
18. How was this punished ?
19. What was the consequence in England ?
20. Did the rival companies join ?
21. By whom was Nadir Shah invited to invade Hindoostan ?
22. How did he succeed ?
23. Did he punish the Moguls ?
24. What was the consequence ?
25. Had the French any settlements in the East Indies ?
26. What was the success of the war ?
27. How did the French treat their generals ?
28. What great English general now appeared ?
29. How does it appear that the French and English were on the point of breaking out into open war ?

CHAPTER XV.

BRITISH CONNECTION WITH INDIA CONTINUED.

In vengeance rous'd, the soldier fills his hand
 With sword and fire, and ravages the land,
 A thousand villages to ashes turn,
 In crackling flames a thousand harvests burn.

ADDISON.

1. FOR the purpose of carrying on their com- A.D.
 merce with Bengal, the English had established a 1756.
 factory at Calcutta, on the condition that they should not
 attempt to erect any fortifications. 2. Dread of an attack
 from the French induced them to violate this agreement,
 and Surajah Dowlah, the sovereign of Bengal, marched
 against Calcutta, which was unprepared to resist him, took

the town and imprisoned the servants of the Company in the black hole of Calcutta, where the greater part of them perished by suffocation before morning. 3. Clive and Watson were sent to recover Calcutta, and they inflicted severe punishment on Dowlah for his aggressions: they next proceeded to attack the French fortress Chandernagore, which surrendered after a short siege, and thus destroyed the French influence in that part of the peninsula.

4. Surajah Dowlah, beginning to dread the accession of power which this conquest would give the English, declared war against them, and prepared to expel them from his territories. 5. The English, having persuaded Meer Jaffier to desert the service of Dowlah in the middle of the engagement, easily defeated him at the decisive battle of Plassey. 6. Dowlah was taken prisoner by a party of the rebels, and beheaded by order of the son of Meer Jaffier. The British then raised the traitor to the sovereignty of Bengal, but were subsequently induced by a bribe to place Meer Cossim in his place. 7. Cossim, however, soon shewed himself inimical to British interests, new wars ensued, and after a series of transactions, many of which were not very honorable to the British character, England acquired and retained the undisputed sovereignty of the kingdom of Bengal.

8. While these events were taking place, the French availed themselves of the absence of the British troops in Bengal to attack the settlements on the Coromandel coast. At first they obtained several successes, but at length their

A.D. 1761. general, Count Lally, was totally defeated by Colonel Coote, and the capture of Pondicherry shortly after terminated for ever the dominion of the French in India.

A.D. 1768. 9. The most formidable enemy that the English had hitherto met in India was Hyder Ally. He had risen from being a common sepoy, or private soldier, to the dignity of a sovereign prince. A gross breach of

faith on the part of the British provoked the hostility of this powerful foe; and having exercised and disciplined his troops in the European manner, Hyder ventured on open war. 10. The details of the tedious and bloody campaigns that followed would not be very interesting to the reader. Cruel atrocities were perpetrated on both sides. Hyder defeated the English under Colonel Baillie, and treated his prisoners with savage ferocity; A.D. 1783. while the campaign of General Matthews, in Cunnara, distinguished by every atrocity which avarice, lust, and cruelty could prompt, affixes a stigma to the British name which it is painful to contemplate. General Matthews, with several of the actors in this disgraceful scene, were made prisoners by Tippoo Saib, the son of Hyder Ally, and poisoned in the dungeons of Seringapatam. 11. This war was terminated by the valour and skill of Sir Eyre Coote, who every where defeated the forces of Hyder, and compelled him to sue for peace.

12. Tippoo Saib inherited his father's hostility A.D. 1789. to the English, but was destitute of his ability. The war which he commenced against them was singularly unfortunate; after a series of brilliant victories the Marquis of Cornwallis shut him up in his capital, Seringapatam, and commenced a vigorous siege. 13. Tippoo A.D. 1792. was compelled to surrender almost at discretion; he was stripped of a great part of his possessions, compelled to pay an immense sum of money, and to give his two sons as hostages for the performance of the conditions of peace.

14. The invasion of Egypt by the French na- A.D. 1798. turally alarmed the British residents in India, as the command of the Red Sea would have enabled them both to bring part of the Indian commerce into its ancient channel, and also to have given effective assistance to the native princes who disliked the sovereignty of Britain. Indeed it was professedly with these intentions that Buonaparte attacked Suez, and sought out the traces of the

canal which Ptolemy had cut between that town and the Nile. 15. Under these circumstances the Governor-General of India, then Earl of Mornington, but now Marquis of Wellesley, viewed with suspicion the diplomatic intercourse between Tippoo and the French. 16. After some vain attempts at negociation, which probably were not expected to succeed, war was formally declared, and General Harris, at the head of a small, but well organized force, advanced against Seringapatam. Tippoo, as before, shut himself up in his capital, and on some occasions shewed considerable skill and courage. After a short siege the town was taken by storm, and the body of Tippoo was found among the slain.

A.D. 1802. 17. The Mahratta war, in which the English were subsequently engaged, with Holkar and Scindia, is principally remarkable for its having been the theatre in which the military talents of the Duke of Wellington, then Colonel Wellesley, were first displayed ; it terminated in 1805, by the complete triumph of the English in every quarter.

18. Since that period the subjugation of the Pindarrees, a plundering tribe, by whom India was devastated, and two successful wars with the Burmese have completely established the supremacy of the English in India. 19. The dominions in the East, over which Great Britain exercises, at this moment, actual sovereignty, contain nearly one million of square miles, and seventy-one millions of inhabitants.

20. The island of Ceylon, supposed to be the Taprobane of the ancients, is about the size of Ireland, and is one of the most valuable of our Eastern acquisitions.

A.D. 1506. 21. The Portuguese colonized its shores soon after the discovery of India, and accounted it one of their most valuable possessions. They particularly esteemed it on account of the cinnamon trade, as the cinnamon-tree

A.D. 1660. is a native of the island. 22. From them it was wrested by the Dutch, whose sordid rapacity was

exhibited by their annual destruction of great quantities of the spices produced in the island ; for they feared lest too abundant a supply might lower the rate of profit in the European markets. The Dutch were engaged in several wars with the natives, in most of which they were A.D. successful. 23. At the commencement of the late 1802. war it passed under the dominion of the English, who have shewn a laudable desire for the religious and political improvement of the natives. 24. The power of the A.D. English excited the jealousy of the native sovereign, 1815. and he waged war against them as intruders, but the consequence of his rashness was the loss of his kingdom, and the whole island is now subject to Great Britain.

Questions.

1. On what conditions was Calcutta built ?
2. How was it treated by Surajah Dowlah ?
3. What victories were obtained by Clive and Watson ?
4. Why did Dowlah go to war with the English ?
5. Whom did the English bribe to desert ?
6. What was the event ?
7. Into whose hands did Bengal eventually fall ?
8. What passed in the mean time on the Coromandel coast ?
9. Who was the most formidable enemy to the English in India ?
10. What atrocities were committed during the war ?
11. By whose valour was it terminated ?
12. Who next waged war on the English ?
13. How was the war terminated ?
14. Why were the English so much alarmed by the French invasion of Egypt ?
15. What war then began in India ?
16. In what manner was it finished ?
17. Why is the Maharatta war remarkable ?
18. Have there been any wars since ?
19. What is the extent of the English dominions in India ?
20. How large is Ceylon ?
21. By whom was it first colonized ?
22. Who took it from the Portuguese ?
23. By whom was it taken from the Dutch ?
24. How did the English acquire the sovereignty of the whole island ?

CHAPTER XVI.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

See at Britannia's feet the riches laid
Of all the world, collected by her trade.

WEYMAN.

THE British commerce with India, though the most interesting and important, still forms but a part of the extensive intercourse that Great Britain maintains with all the nations of the world ; but to describe British trade in its full extent would require several volumes, and the following rapid sketch is only designed to give the reader a faint notion of the elements of Britain's commercial prosperity. 1. The first accounts of Britain, as a place of trade, are derived from the Phœnician mariners, who purchased tin from the mines of Cornwall before the Christian era. 2. Under the Romans, the trade of the country, both external and internal, appears to have flourished ; but after their departure, the invasion of the Picts and Scots, and the total disorganization of the country, almost extirpated commerce. 3. The Saxons, although a nation of mariners, after their settlement in England neglected navigation ; and though some of their monarchs, especially Alfred, fitted out fleets, yet the improvements that they effected generally died with them ; and it was not until after the invasion of the Danes, that the foundation of the navy of England was laid. 4. The hereditary possessions of the Norman dynasty rendered a fleet necessary, to preserve a free communication with the continent, and during the reigns of William the Conqueror and his immediate successors, a brisk trade was maintained between the eastern ports of England and the opposite shores of Germany and France.

5. The crusades led the English sailors into the Mediterranean, and opened to them new markets for the sale of

the various raw materials which their country produced ; in return for which they brought home the luxuries of the East. 6. The commerce of England continued to increase by slow degrees, until the accession of Elizabeth, by whom this country was raised to the first rank among the commercial states of Europe. The Russian and American trade commenced in her reign, and the English, for the first time, began to make distant voyages, and establish remote colonies. The advancement of trade subsequently proceeded with wonderful rapidity, until the late wars that arose out of the French revolution deprived most other European nations of their colonies, and gave England almost a monopoly of the commerce of the world.

7. The principal materials of commerce may be conveniently classed under the *mineral*, *vegetable*, and *animal* kingdoms, and the articles manufactured from them. In the mineral kingdom are included metals and earths. The principal metals are, gold, platina, silver, mercury, copper, iron, lead, and tin.

8. Gold, the most precious metal, is found in most parts of the world. The most productive mines are those of New Mexico, in North America ; but those where the gold is found purest are in the East Indies.

Silver is also to be met with in many countries ; but the mines of Norway and Sweden in Europe, and still more, those of Potosi in South America, are the richest. From South America also is obtained a metal unknown to the ancients, named *platina*, from its resemblance to silver. Platina is nearly as valuable as gold, for though less ductile, it is more durable, and better retains a given shape.

Mercury, or quicksilver, is a fluid metal, that looks like melted silver. It is found in the mines of Hungary, Spain, &c., at a great expenditure of human life, for the fumes from the quicksilver produce the most terrible diseases. It is principally used as an alloy ; combined with tin-foil, it forms the back, or silvering, of looking-glasses.

Copper is imported in great quantities from Sweden, but it is also obtained in several parts of the British dominions, especially in the island of Anglesea. Combined with *zinc*, (a metal resembling lead in appearance), it forms brass, and with a smaller proportion of zinc, it is called bronze. Copper is also the principal ingredient in bell-metal.

Iron is found in several parts of England, but great quantities are annually imported from Sweden. Steel is formed by combining iron with *carbon*, a substance that exists in charcoal. The loadstone is generally found in iron mines, and is remarkable for its property of attracting iron, and when at liberty, disposing itself in the direction of the poles of the earth.

Lead and tin are native metals, and are found in great abundance in Cornwall. Tin is the principal ingredient in the compound metal, *pewter*; it is also used to coat over plates of iron, which are then improperly called sheet-tin.

9. Precious stones are principally obtained from the East Indies and South America. The most remarkable are the diamond, which is perfectly colourless and transparent; the ruby, red; the sapphire, blue; the topaz, yellow; the amethyst, purple; and the garnet, a deep red. Some others less precious are, the opal, lapis lazuli, agate, cornelian, &c. which differ from the former in being nearly opaque. Pearls are usually reckoned among precious stones, but they do not belong to the mineral kingdom, being found in a species of oyster; the most celebrated pearl fishery is that at the island of Ceylon.

10. There are many other mineral productions imported into Great Britain, such as the different species of marble, porphyry, jasper, &c. The best marble is obtained from Italy, but there are several excellent marble quarries both in Scotland and Ireland.

11. A nation like Great Britain, &c.

ships, and is so thickly inhabited, that most of the woods have been cleared away, must of necessity consume much foreign timber. From the north of Europe we import pine, fir, and the planks cut from the fir, called *deals*. The forests of Canada and North America annually send over immense quantities of timber, from which our ships and houses are built. The best material for ships is our own native oak; but as that is not produced in sufficient abundance, it is seldom used, except in building vessels for the royal navy. The best British timber trees are the *elm* and the *beech*, for strength and durability; *ash* for light work, such as poles, oars, the spokes of wheels, &c.; *walnut* for coarse articles of furniture; and *box* for turnery ware. The imported woods are chiefly *teak*, from the East Indies, which is supposed to possess many valuable qualities for naval purposes; *mahogany*, from which most articles of furniture is made, and which is procured in great abundance in different parts of the West Indies; *cedar*, valuable for its fragrance and softness; *rose* and *satin* wood, useful in ornamental cabinet-making; *logwood* and *Brazil-wood*, used in dyeing; and many others.

12. The bark of several trees form important articles of commerce; that of the cork-tree supplies us with corks; this tree grows chiefly in Spain and Portugal. The bark of the oak is used in tanning; but the most important are, that of a tree in South America, which produces that very valuable medicine Peruvian bark; and cinnamon, which is produced from the island of Ceylon.

13. Passing from trees to shrubs, we must notice the tea plant, a native of China, whose leaves supply us with a pleasant and wholesome beverage; the cotton tree, from whence cotton is procured (this shrub grows both in the East and West Indies; when the fruit, which is about the size of a walnut, is ripe, the shell bursts, and the cotton is found surrounding the seeds;) and the coffee shrub,

whose berries, when roasted, ground, and boiled, form the drink that we call coffee.

14. The fruits imported into England are very numerous—we shall only notice the spices. Nutmegs are the fruit of a tree that grows in the Moluccas, or spice islands; the inner part of the husk furnishes the spice called mace; pepper is obtained from a shrub that grows abundantly in the islands of Java and Sumatra; red pepper is of a different species, being derived from the seeds of a plant called the *capsicum*. The fruit of the cocoa-tree, when ground with other ingredients, is called *chocolate*, the husk of the nut is called *shell coa*, and is sometimes used instead of tea. But the flowers or buds of some shrubs are the parts valuable in commerce, such as *cloves*, the flower of a shrub found chiefly at Amboyna, and *capers*, the bud of a creeping plant produced abundantly in the south of France.

15. The sugar-cane, which is principally cultivated in the West Indies, forms the greater part of the riches of those valuable islands. The pith of the cane, when pressed, gives out a rich liquor, from which sugar is obtained; the remainder of the juice, after the sugar has been extracted, is called molasses, or treacle, and when distilled yields a strong spirit called rum.

15. From several trees various viscid juices exude, which harden in the open air, and form the resins and gums of commerce. Larch, fir, and pine yield *tar* and *turpentine*. *Frankincense* is procured in Arabia; *camphor* is the gum of a tree in the islands of Borneo, Ceylon, &c.; *gamboge* brought from Cambodia, in the East Indies; and *caoutchouc*, or *Indian-rubber*, which exudes from a tree that is found both in Asia and America. *Amber* is by most writers considered to be a gum or resin, but there is some difficulty in accounting for its production; it is usually found floating on the sea, or cast on the

shore; *ambergris*, an inflammable fragrant substance, is of equally dubious formation, but from many circumstances we have reason to believe that the latter is an animal secretion, probably of the whale. 17. Among vegetable productions *cochineal* is usually classed; it is an insect which lives on the plant called *opuntia*, growing in South America. These insects, when bruised, afford a reddish dust, which is used for dyeing scarlet, crimson, and purple. Great quantities of them are annually imported.

18. In the lower ranks of vegetable life the articles of commerce are so numerous that it would be impossible to recount them; among the most remarkable are hemp, the rind of whose stalk affords materials for the manufacture of sail-cloth and cordage; flax, which is similarly used for thread and linen; indigo, which yields a beautiful blue; tobacco, a plant used as an article of luxury, when dried and twisted, when ground it forms *snuff*; ginger, the root of a species of rush in the East Indies; rhubarb, the root of a plant produced in most warm climates, &c.

19. The extracts from vegetable substances called *oils* are many and various; the principal are *olive* oil, procured from Spain; *castor* oil, extracted from the fruit of the Palma Christi, a native of South America; *linseed* oil, derived from the seeds of flax, &c. Besides these there are animal oils, such as train and spermaceti, both of which are obtained from the whale.

20. By fermentation and distillation wines and ardent spirits are obtained. *Wine* is the fermented juice of the grape; *brandy* is procured from the same fruit by distillation. *Gin* is obtained by distilling malt with juniper berries; *whiskey* is derived solely from the malt. *Ale*, *porter*, and *beer* are made from malt by fermentation, and hops are then added to preserve the liquor. 21. *Malt* is a preparation of barley: the grain is steeped in water until it is completely sodden; it is then laid in heaps to ferment; as soon as signs of vegetation are perceived the

grain is dried to prevent its progress, and it then becomes malt. The reason of this proceeding is that barley, and indeed other grains, contain a quantity of *saccharine* or sugary matter, which yields a vinous liquor by fermentation, and spirits when distilled. This *saccharine* matter is most fully developed when vegetation is about to commence, but becomes exhausted as it proceeds; the grain is, therefore, forced to begin to grow, and then when its *saccharine* powers have been put forth, the progress is arrested, in order that these powers may be retained.

22. The last portion of vegetable commerce that we shall notice is the articles derived from the ashes of different plants. These are by a common name called *kali*. The principal are *potash*, which is chiefly derived from the United States; *soda*, or *kelp*, obtained from the ashes of a marine plant, growing on the sea-shore of these islands, and *barilla*, a stronger species of *soda*, imported from Spain. These are principally valuable for their *detergative* or cleansing qualities; but since they would injure and corrode if applied by themselves, they are combined with tallow, and thus form soap, which possesses all the useful properties of the *kalies*, free from those that would hurt and destroy.

23. The animal productions imported into England are the hair or fur of beasts, their skins, and their teeth. From the extreme north of America is procured the fur of the beaver, used in the manufacture of the finer sort of hats. Wool for broad cloths is imported from Spain and Saxony. Mohair is produced by a species of goat in Angora, &c. Besides the different species of leather that are made from the skins of animals, there are *parchment*, which is prepared from the skins of sheep, and *vellum* from those of young calves. The parings of leather, when boiled, form glue; fish-glue, or *isinglass*, is obtained by boiling certain parts of various fishes. The tusks of the elephant furnish us with *ivory*, and whalebone is a sub-

stance found in the jaw of the whale, where it is a substitute for teeth.

24. Silk is the production of a caterpillar, called the silk-worm, which, when about to change its form, wraps itself up in a ball of fine thread, which, like the spider, it spins from its own bowels. This ball, when unrolled, is frequently six miles in length. The silk-worm was originally a native of the interior of Asia, but it is now abundantly produced in the south of Europe.

25. This is a very partial enumeration of the raw materials of our commerce: it now remains to consider how this commerce is conducted, and why it is that a country of such small dimensions as Great Britain is enabled to take such a lead in the world by the extent of her trade. On referring to the map of the world the student will observe that the colonies of England are dispersed over the whole globe. Gibraltar, Malta, and the Ionian islands command the Mediterranean sea; the settlement of Sierra Leone secures a portion of the West African trade; St. Helena, and the colonies at the Cape of Good Hope, enable us to provide convenient resting-places for vessels sailing to the East Indies; while our extensive dominions in India give us a complete mastery of all the commerce of southern Asia. In the other hemisphere, the Canadas, New Brunswick, &c. command the northern parts of America, as far as the boundaries of Russia and the United States. The West Indies, valuable in themselves, enable us besides to carry on trade with the fertile provinces which have lately thrown off the yoke of Spain; while in the southern hemisphere the settlements in New Holland and Van Dieman's Land promise, at no very distant period, to rival our older colonies in value and importance. 26. Now, the necessary connection between all these settlements and the mother country must of necessity require an immense number of ships: the inhabitants of a new country are for a long time too few and too thinly

scattered to think of manufactures; they obtain these from the parent state, and pay for them by the produce of the soil; thus Great Britain has provided a number of markets for the productions of her artisans, and is at the same time enabled to procure the raw materials of her manufactures on the most advantageous terms. The superiority of the British navy has made this island in a great degree the *entrepot* between the continents of Europe and America; that is, the English merchant purchases from the resident on the continent his article, which he then sells in America or India, and similarly disposes of the produce of those countries on the continent; and thus far more than one half of the commerce of the whole world is carried on in England.

27. The internal management of the country next merits our attention, and by looking at the map of England, and comparing it with other countries, the reader will see that in no nation is there more convenience for prompt and safe communication. Nature has bountifully supplied us with navigable rivers, and art has intersected the country every where with canals; thus the articles manufactured in the interior are conveyed to the coast with the greatest facility, and materials sent to the manufactories by the same means. The number and excellence of the harbours by which the coast of England is indented will strike the observer; but he must also bear in mind that these have been wonderfully improved by the erection of piers, breakwaters, and safety-docks, so that no country in the world can at all be compared to this, in the facilities for conducting commercial transactions.

28. Though these advantages always made England a country of considerable trade, yet her great commercial prosperity did not begin until about the middle of the last century, under the administration of the great earl of Chatham. The war which he so successfully carried on against France and Spain, was by his skill made subser-

vient to the purposes of British trade, and secured to England the entire commerce of North America, and a large proportion of the profitable trade with South America, which had been previously monopolized by Spain. The impulse thus given to our native industry, was followed by effects equally surprising and beneficial; companies began to be formed for the execution of public works, which could not have been undertaken by any individual, however rich, and their success stimulated others to emulation. 29. Thus the skill, the enterprise, and the capital of the country was directed to national improvement, and every new successful undertaking was prolific in others, commenced either for its extension or in rivalry. Another advantage was that the asperity of the political parties which had hitherto divided the nation, and which had produced the civil wars of 1715 and 1745, were softened and almost effaced; when Whigs and Tories met together to discuss some beneficial project, they were practically convinced of the folly of party feuds, since they found that a difference in politics did not produce a deficiency either in moral worth or intellectual power.

30. The discovery of the steam-engine, and the improvements subsequently made in that wonderful machine, have given Great Britain a complete superiority in manufactures; this principally is owing to her inexhaustible mines of excellent coal, by which she is able to procure fuel with greater ease and at less expense than any other nation. It would be obviously impossible to enumerate all the articles manufactured in Great Britain, and even a sketch of the most important would transcend the limits of this already overgrown chapter; some notice, however, must be taken of the cloth, iron, cotton, and silk manufactories, as they form the principal part of the riches of the nation, and are those branches of business which have most fully displayed British industry and British ingenuity.

31. The people of Flanders originally possessed the

monopoly of the woollen trade, and from their manufactories supplied all Europe. Until the reign of Edward III. the English exported their fleeces to Flanders, and had to buy them again after they had been manufactured. But that wise monarch saw the folly of allowing foreigners thus to enrich themselves at our expence, and accordingly invited the Flemings to come over and settle in the country, giving them great privileges for their encouragement; since that time the making of broad-cloths has been the staple manufacture of England, and at the present moment England may be said to furnish cloth to the greater part of the world. Carpets, which were first introduced from the East, are now extensively made in this country, and though our artizans do not quite rival the Turkish and Persian carpets in richness of colouring, they far surpass them in the excellence of the texture and the beauty of the pattern. Serges and other thin stuffs, woven from woollen yarn, were at one time profitable articles of trade, but they have been almost totally superseded by the increased consumption of cotton goods.

32. Muslins and calicoes were, during a great part of the last century, imported from the East Indies, and only a coarse kind of cotton goods manufactured in England; but the invention of the *spinning-jennies* by Hargrave, in 1767, and the still greater improvements made by Sir Richard Arkwright, who was originally a very humble individual, have made this branch of trade the most valuable in England. At present more than 100 million yards of calico are annually manufactured, and the export of cotton goods considerably exceeds one-fourth of the value of all the other exports of England. The application of steam machinery has been the great cause of this wonderful increase of trade; but as machines have superseded the use of manual labour, there has frequently been an outcry against them, and the artizans have on many occasions combined for their destruction; but the distress produced

by the introduction of machinery is only temporary, while the advantages are great and permanent; facility of supply creates demand, and thus other departments of the same business are eventually opened to the workmen.

33. The silk trade in England is principally engaged in articles for home consumption; but it is still very extensive. The velvets and satins, which used to be imported from France, Italy, and India, are now manufactured in our own country, and the export trade, though not at present very extensive, seems likely to become more valuable. The application of extensive machinery to this trade is only practised in Derbyshire, and the longer experience of the continental silk-weavers must make it at present a hazardous speculation; but when we reflect on the great advances already made, we see no reason to despair for the future.

34. The British trade in wrought iron and cutlery is one likely to increase; the superior skill of our artists in the construction of every species of machine is acknowledged throughout Europe, while our knives, scissars, &c. possess every where an incontestable superiority. The use of wrought iron has, of late years, superseded that of wood in many of the most important parts of building; the Southwark bridge across the Thames, and the roofs of several public buildings, sufficiently prove the value of this new application of iron to architectural purposes.

35. The principal manufacture in Ireland is that of linen, which is in a great degree confined to the northern province of Ulster. At the fair of Chester the Irish linens used to be sold in large quantities, but of late the trade has been for the most part transferred to Liverpool.

Questions.

1. Who first visited Britain for the purposes of trade?
2. What was its state under the Romans?
3. By what people was a good navy first established?

4. How did the Norman conquest increase trade ?
5. When did the English engage in the commerce of the Mediterranean ?
6. In whose reign did English commerce advance most rapidly ?
7. What products of the mineral kingdom are articles of commerce ?
8. Enumerate the metals.
9. Describe the principal gems.
10. Whence do we procure marble ?
11. What are the most remarkable kinds of timber ?
12. Are not the barks of some trees used in commerce ?
13. What shrubs supply articles of trade ?
14. What are the most remarkable fruits imported ?
15. Why is the sugar-cane valuable ?
16. What gums and resins are imported ?
17. Is cochineal a vegetable substance ?
18. What are the most remarkable plants and roots imported ?
19. Enumerate some of the oils.
20. What liquors are extracted from vegetable substances ?
21. What is malt ?
22. Are any substances obtained from the ashes of vegetables ?
23. What are the most important annual productions imported ?
24. What is silk ?
25. Describe the advantages in the position of the British colonies.
26. How do they create trade ?
27. What facilities does England, as a country, afford for commerce ?
28. When did England obtain the lead in commerce ?
29. How did it advance ?
30. What mineral production gives England a superiority in manufactures ?
31. What remarks have you to make on the woollen trade ?
32. By whom were machines for the cotton manufactory brought to perfection ?
33. Is silk manufactured in England ?
34. What improvements have been made in the iron trade ?
35. Where is the linen trade carried on ?

PART IV.

CHAPTER I.

BRITISH BIOGRAPHY.

*From the Invasion of the Saxons to the Accession of
Henry IV.*

To virtue's humblest son let none prefer
Vice, though descended from the Conqueror.

YOUNG.

ALDHELM, nephew of Ina, king of the West Saxons, was the first Englishman who obtained literary distinction ; he was instructed by the monks that had settled at Canterbury, and soon became so distinguished for his attainments in learning, that he was invited by the king of Scotland to aid in the civilization of that country. The purity and excellence of his Latin writings are highly extolled by Bede, and king Alfred used to declare that Aldhelm was the best of the Saxon poets. He died A.D. 709.

THEODORE, who was advanced to the bishopric of Canterbury A.D. 668, though not an Englishman by birth, deserves to be recorded, as he contributed much to the introduction and improvement of learning in England. Indeed it must be gratefully confessed, that all the learning and civilization of England principally flowed from the introduction of Christianity ; the first Christian king was also the first English legislator who gave his subjects a

establishing every where a perfect uniformity of erecting bishoprics over the districts where they were required, procuring the great men of the state to parish churches, and imposing a regular tax for the support of the clergy. This great prelate was a native of Tarsus, in Cilicia, which also had the honour of being the birth place of Saint Paul. He died in the 89th year of his age, A.D. 690.

THE VENERABLE BEDE.—This excellent person was born at Wearmouth, in the kingdom of Northumbria, A.D. 672, and educated in the monastery of Saint Peter founded at that place about two years before his birth. Benedict Biscop, one of the most learned men of the age, The superior abilities of Bede attracted the notice of Benedict, and induced him to devote a great deal of personal attention on his education. At the age of nine Bede was admitted to deacon's orders, and removed to the school of Jarrow, near the mouth of the Tyne, where he spent the remainder of his life in the devotional exercises of his church, in reading and writing. The fame of Bede soon spread over Europe, and Pope Sergius invited him to Rome, but he did not accept the invitation.

piety, and learning, united in one character, are the objects of veneration amongst mankind.

ALCUINUS.—This celebrated writer was born about the time of Bede's decease, and was educated at York, under the direction of Archbishop Egbert. At an early age he was sent as an ambassador by Offa, king of Mercia, to the court of Charlemagne. The emperor was so greatly delighted with him, that he prevailed upon him to settle in his court, and become his preceptor in the sciences. He was treated with so much kindness and familiarity by Charlemagne, that the other courtiers called him, by way of eminence, *the Emperor's delight*. To him France was indebted for all the polite learning it boasted of in that and the following ages; the universities of Paris, Tours, Fulden, Soissons, and others, owe to him their origin and increase; those of which he was not the superior and founder, being at least enlightened by his doctrine and example, and enriched by the benefits he procured for them from Charlemagne. After Alcuinus had spent many years in the most intimate familiarity with the greatest prince of his age, he at length with difficulty obtained leave to retire to his abbey of St. Martin's, at Tours. Here he kept up a correspondence with Charlemagne; from these letters it appears that both the emperor and his learned friend were animated with the most ardent love of learning and religion, and constantly employed in contriving and executing the noblest designs for their advancement. Alcuinus published several treatises, written with a purity and elegance of style far superior to any of his contemporaries. After a life spent in the practice of every virtue he died at his abbey of St. Martin's, at Tours, A.D. 804.

ODO, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.—This celebrated prelate was the son of a noble and wealthy Dane, settled in East Anglia: his father was a bigotted Pagan, and turned Odo out of doors, while yet a child, for fre-

quenter the Christian churches. In this extremity he took refuge in the family of Athelm, an English nobleman of the highest rank, by whom he was carefully educated; and so rapid was his progress in learning, that he was admitted into holy orders, and ordained a priest before the age prescribed by the canons. He was soon after raised to the bishopric of Shereburn; this high office he executed with equal piety and prudence; and being of a martial spirit he attended his sovereign king Athelstan in the field, and contributed not a little to the victories obtained by that monarch over the Danes. On the death of Wulphelm, A.D. 934, Odo was raised to the Archbishopric of Canterbury. His principal aim seems to have been to exalt the power of the clergy, and in this he was very successful. In gratitude for these exertions his clerical biographers attribute to him miraculous powers, and represent him as the peculiar favourite of heaven. He died A.D. 957.

SAINT DUNSTAN, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.—This “prince of monks,” as he is called by his biographers, was descended from a noble family in Wessex, and educated at the abbey of Glastonbury. Several absurd legends are related by the monkish historians respecting the miraculous attestations of Dunstan’s piety and future eminence*. He was first summoned to court by King

* One or two specimens of these will give the reader some notion of the manner in which the monkish historians write the lives of their saints. Hard study had on one occasion brought Dunstan to the verge of dissolution; his weeping friends stood round the bed, expecting every moment to witness his departure. Suddenly an angel came from heaven, in a storm, and administered a medicine which instantaneously restored him to health. Dunstan sprung from his bed, and speeded to the nearest church, to return thanks for his recovery. On his road he met the devil, attended by a countless multitude of black dogs, who endeavoured to obstruct his passage; this would have frightened some boys, but Dunstan was a youth of courage, he beat off the devil by prayers, and dispersed the dogs by effectually exercising a good cudgel.

Athelstan, but by the envy of the courtiers was again sent into retirement. He was recalled to court by King Edmund A.D. 941, and during his reign, and that of his successor Edred, employed himself in increasing the riches, power, and privileges of the monks and clergy. On the accession of Edwy an attempt was made to check the encroachments of the clergy: the cruelties and calamities caused by this struggle will be found in Pinnock's England, chapter iii. section 3. Dunstan was made Archbishop of Canterbury by Edgar, A.D. 960, and imme-

The devil then got before him and locked the church door, but an angel who was passing by conveyed Dunstan in through an opening in the roof, and set him safely down before the altar. Soon after Dunstan was introduced at the court of Athelstan, and acquired the favour of that monarch by his skill in the mechanical arts, his knowledge of music, and by working an odd miracle now and then to keep himself in practice. His old enemy, the devil, was greatly offended at this conduct, and prompted some envious courtiers to tell the king that his favourite was a magician. Athelstan lent too ready an ear to these base insinuations, and dismissed his young favourite, who retired to an hermitage near Glastonbury.

In his retirement the Saint amused himself by working at a forge, and making ornaments of brass, iron, &c. One evening while Dunstan was thus usefully employed, the devil, putting on the appearance of a man, thrust his head in at the window of the cell, and asked the Saint to make something or other for him. Dunstan, intent on his work, made no answer, which put the devil in such a passion that he began to curse and swear at a furious rate, and thus betrayed himself; upon this Dunstan, putting up a secret ejaculation, took his red hot tongs from the fire, seized the devil by the nose, and squeezed him with all his might. His infernal majesty, unaccustomed to such treatment, roared and scolded at such a rate that he terrified all the neighbourhood for many miles round; and when at length Dunstan permitted him to escape, he vowed never to come near a saint who was also a blacksmith for the future.

The absurdity of these precious legends may probably lead to a pardonable suspicion of their being merely invented for amusement; but the reader will find them and many others equally ridiculous, gravely recorded in the second volume of the *Anglia Sacra*, an ecclesiastical history of England compiled by the monks.

compel the celibacy of the clergy, were disgraced by any age or country, but they have been blazoned out by the superstitious admirers of Dunstan. shameful * frauds were also practised, and pretences wrought to ensure the victory of the monks. The next task was to prepare a code of laws for the government of the English church, which is commonly known as the *canons of king Edgar*, these canons give us very favourable opinions of the state of England at the time, for they are manifestly the offspring of artifice and flattery, working on the grossest ignorance †. Dunstan died A.D. 988, and was raised to the rank of a saint by the monks whom he had so essentially benefitted. They carried their adulation of his memory to a more pious extreme, exalting him to a perfect equality with the Deity. But it must now be confessed that he was a virulent persecutor, that he sacrificed his country to the advancement of his order; for the great proportion of English lands that were given to the clergy, who

* At a general council, the clergy were about to abolish the celibacy, when a voice from a crucifix that had been built into the wall of the church, cried out, "I am the voice of the Lord," and the council was dissolved.

buted nothing to the defence of the realm, was the principal reason why the country so easily became the prey of the insulting Danes, and the victorious Normans.

ÆLFRIC, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.—This excellent prelate and voluminous writer was raised to the primacy of England A.D. 995; his first care was to provide for the instruction of the people, and for this purpose he translated no fewer than eighty sermons from Latin into Saxon, and ordered them to be publicly read by the inferior clergy. One of these, the sermon for Easter Sunday, has been frequently reprinted, and is valuable from its proving clearly that the doctrine of transubstantiation was then unknown in England. In truth, no modern writer could express the present doctrine of the Church of England, respecting the Sacrament, in more clear and explicit language than it was delivered by Ælfric. He died A.D. 1005.

GODWIN, EARL OF KENT.—Soon after Canute had conquered his opponents, and obtained possession of the English throne, (See Pinnock's England, Chap. III. sect. 4.) he prepared to make a voyage to Denmark, which was then (A.D. 1019.) at war with Sweden. His English auxiliaries were commanded by the youthful Godwin, earl of Kent, then little better than a needy adventurer. The valour and skill which Godwin displayed in this expedition so pleased the monarch, that he distinguished Godwin with marks of favour beyond those shewn even to his native subjects, and thus enabled him to lay the foundation of his future greatness. In the commotions that followed the death of Canute, Godwin, at the head of the English party, sided with Hardicanute, the son of the late monarch by a Saxon princess. The bribes of Harold gained Godwin over to his interest, and he had the baseness to seize on Alfred, the Saxon heir to the English crown, and after having cruelly slaughtered his attendants, to deliver the unhappy prince to the fierce tyrant Harold. On the death

time, he could not refuse obedience to Hardicanute. The murder of Alfred had alienated the affections of his friends and followers. Not satisfied with these degenerate submissions, Hardicanute compelled the earl of Kent to pay him several enormous sums as bribes to screen him from merited punishment, and employed him as the minister of his vengeance in persecuting such Englishmen as refused to pay taxes. Notwithstanding Godwin managed to retain his popularity and power, for at the death of Hardicanute we find that the Saxon line was revived in the person of Edward, principally by the influence of Godwin, to whose daughter Edward was contracted. Edward did not, however, derive the advantages that had been expected from the accession of Edward. During his reign that prince had resided in Normandy, and had become much attached to the people and manners of that province; after his accession to the throne, he conferred the honours of the kingdom on these foreigners, and excluded Godwin from his councils. It is not improbable that a natural dislike to the murderer of his brother might have contributed to produce this conduct in Edward. For we find that he refused to live with his wife because

and several of his followers were slain. Eustace returned to the English court, and gave such a prejudiced statement of the circumstances to the king, that Edward ordered Godwin forthwith to levy an army and inflict exemplary vengeance on the town. The earl disobeyed, and marched against the Welch, for which he was outlawed as a traitor, and compelled with all his children to seek refuge in exile; his immense possessions were confiscated, and all his places of office and trust conferred on others. Though Godwin and his sons had been thus compelled to yield to the torrent, they were men of too much spirit to sit down quietly without attempting to revenge the injuries and repair the losses they had received. Godwin prepared a fleet in Flanders, and his son Harold, who was afterwards an unsuccessful competitor for the throne of England, joined him with a squadron that he had collected in Ireland. The earl and his sons soon entered the river Thames, and approached London, where the king lay with his army. Edward, instigated by his Norman favourites, stood firm for some time, and seemed resolved to hazard an engagement; but the English nobility interfering, a negociation was set on foot, which soon terminated in a peace, by which Godwin was restored to his title and estates, and the Normans were banished. The earl did not long enjoy his prosperity, while sitting at table with the king he fell suddenly dead, A.D. 1053. Some authors state that this accident occurred while he was vehemently protesting his innocence of Alfred's murder: and add that as marks of divine vengeance his favourite son Harold fell with two of his brothers at the field of Hastings, and his fine property being overwhelmed by the sea, formed the dangerous shoal called now *the Godwin sands*.

LANFRANC, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.—This prelate was a native of Pavia in Italy; he had the good fortune to attract the notice of William Duke of Normandy, and was a resident in his dominions, when that

prince invaded England. The Conqueror, dreading the hostility of the Saxon prelates, procured the deposition of several on frivolous pretences, and supplied their place by foreigners, on whose attachment he could place more dependance; among the rest Stigand was removed from the see of Canterbury and his place given to Lanfranc, A.D. 1070. A long dispute between the Archbishops of York and Canterbury, respecting the primacy, finally terminated in favour of Lanfranc, though the contest was renewed in after ages. Lanfranc was the first who established the doctrine of *transubstantiation* in England; and like some of his predecessors he laboured strenuously to establish the celibacy of the clergy; this was, however, the corruption of the Romish church which the English resisted with most firmness, and to which their submission was obtained with most difficulty. Lanfranc was one of the ablest and most efficacious supporters of William Rufus in his usurpation of the English crown; he had been tutor to that prince, and was naturally attached to his pupil, and it is said that he had been requested by the Conqueror to secure the Crown of England for his second son, deeming Normandy a sufficient provision for Robert the eldest. Lanfranc survived his patron the Conqueror but a short time, he died A.D. 1089, leaving behind him a high character for wisdom, learning, and munificence.

INGULPHUS, ABBOT OF CROYLAND.—This amusing and accurate historian was born A.D. 1030; he was educated at Westminster, whence he removed to Oxford, and soon attained great eminence in that university. He was introduced to William, Duke of Normandy, who came over on a visit to the English court, and was induced to return with him to the continent as his private secretary. The jealousy of the Norman courtiers soon made the situation of Ingulphus very unpleasant, and to avoid the effects of their envy he obtained leave from the duke to go on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. The cal-

mities he endured on this journey give us a faithful picture of the foolish disastrous pilgrimages so common in these times. The pilgrims assembled at Mentz, under the command of Sigfrid, duke of that place: they amounted to about seven thousand of the most distinguished persons in France and Germany. In their passage through Lycia they were attacked by the Arabs, who killed and wounded great numbers of the pilgrims, and plundered them of an enormous sum of money. Those who escaped from this disaster at length reached Jerusalem, and visited the several holy places; they were exposed to several new dangers in their return, and at length came home half-starved, destitute of money, clothes, or horses. After this Ingulphus became disgusted with the world, and retired to the abbey of Fontenelle, in Normandy. He had been raised to the dignity of prior a little before William set out on his English expedition, and was sent in that capacity to present the duke with twelve men-at-arms, and one hundred marks in money, to aid his invasion. After the conquest of England William raised his old favourite to the dignity of Abbot of Croyland, and there Ingulphus spent the last thirty years of his life, preparing his history of that abbey, in which he has introduced much of the general history of the kingdom, and many anecdotes of illustrious individuals not to be found elsewhere. Ingulphus died at his abbey, A.D. 1109.

THOMAS BECKET, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.—This able and ambitious prelate, whose life makes the most conspicuous figure in the ecclesiastical annals of England, was born in London, A.D. 1119, and studied in the universities of Oxford, Paris, and Bologna, the most celebrated seats of learning in those times. He was patronized by Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, and by his favour was made first archdeacon of Canterbury, and subsequently chancellor of England; for that office was at first always given to one of the clergy. In this situation Becket success-

fully laboured to ingratiate himself with Henry II., and was one of the gayest and most luxurious courtiers in that monarch's train. Henry thought that the appointment of such a man would enable him to resist the encroachments of the church, by which he and his predecessors had been severely inconvenienced. The empress Maude, the king's mother, endeavoured to dissuade him from this design, and the clergy of England, who were mostly Normans, vehemently opposed the promotion of an Englishman to the primacy. Henry, infatuated by affection for his favourite, persevered, and Becket was consecrated at Canterbury, June 6th, A.D. 1162. No sooner had he obtained the object of his ambition than he prepared for a fierce struggle with his royal benefactor, and determined to exalt the privileges of the clergy higher than ever. For this purpose he totally changed his mode of life, and from the gayest courtier became the most rigid ascetic. Soon after this Becket attended a council held at Tours, by Pope Alexander III., and was there so highly honoured and flattered by the Pope, that he resolved at all hazards to support the liberties of the church and the immunities of the clergy. The principal subject of dispute between Henry and the leaders of the church was the right of trying the clergy for civil offences; their dissolute lives and the atrocious crimes committed by some of them, made it necessary to bring this question to a speedy issue. Accordingly Henry summoned a council of the clergy and nobility at Westminster; there, in a long speech, he complained of the thefts, robberies, and murders, committed by the clergy, and concluded with requiring from the archbishop and the other bishops, that when a clergyman was degraded for any crime, he should be immediately delivered to the king's officers, that he might be punished according to the laws of the land. The primate dreading that the other prelates would comply with so reasonable a demand, entreated that they might be allowed to have a private

conference before they returned an answer; the request was granted, and Becket so terrified his brethren with threats of papal vengeance, that they peremptorily rejected the king's proposal, and the council broke up in confusion. Henry, justly irritated at this disappointment, was still compelled to smother his resentment, and to try the effect of solicitation; Becket soon began to yield a little, and waiting upon the king, at Oxford, promised obedience to the laws of the land, without making any reservation of the privileges of his order, as he had been hitherto accustomed. Pleased with this success, Henry called a great council of the clergy and barons at Clarendon, and there promulgated the celebrated ecclesiastical code called *the Constitutions of Clarendon*; by these regulations all ecclesiastics were reduced to a due subjection to the laws of their country, they limited the jurisdiction of spiritual courts, prohibited appeals to Rome, and forbade the publication of interdicts and excommunications without the consent of the king or his justiciary. Becket, with visible reluctance, swore to the observance of these constitutions, and immediately after prepared to violate his oath. He commenced a new series of penances and mortifications to expiate the pretended sin of which he had been guilty, and dispatched a special messenger to Rome to procure a bull from the Pope, absolving him from the obligation of his oath. This was soon obtained, and hereupon commenced the disgraceful struggle which the reader will find recorded in Pinnock's England, Chapter VIII. Section 1 and 2, and which ended in the triumph of Becket, his subsequent assassination and canonization. He was killed A.D. 1170, in the fifty-third year of his age. The character of Becket, which the monks have extolled so highly, is one that merits the execration of posterity; a compound of vanity, selfish cunning and obstinacy, he laboured to establish the despotism of the Romish church in its worst form in England. The means he employed were as disgraceful and infamous as

the object was dangerous ; he scrupled not to use the most flagrant perjury and atrocious treachery. But the clergy looked on him as the champion of their order, the English saw in him the only one of their countrymen that dared to resist their Norman tyrants, and finally Henry found that he could derive some advantages from his deceased enemy, and thus all parties agreed to raise Becket to the rank of a saint and a martyr.

POPE ADRIAN IV.—This was the only Englishman that ever sat on the papal throne. His real name was Nicholas Breakspear ; he was born near St. Alban's, and in his boyhood performed several menial offices about the abbey where his father was a monk. Being rejected by the abbot for want of learning, when he desired to become a monk, and reproached by his father for indolence, he left England and went to Paris, where he applied to study with the greatest ardour. From Paris he went into Provence, and having entered into the monastery of St. Rufus, recommended himself so effectually, that on the first vacancy he was chosen abbot. The monks, however, soon became weary of a foreigner, and made bitter complaints against their new abbot to Pope Eugenius III. This proved a very fortunate event to our countryman, for Eugenius was so much pleased with the talent and eloquence he displayed in his own defence, that he made him bishop of Alba, A.D. 1146, and a cardinal. Soon after he was appointed legate to Denmark and Norway, and acquitted himself so well in that station, that on his return to Rome, a vacancy happening in the pontificate, he was unanimously chosen Pope, A.D. 1154, and took the name of Adrian IV. Henry II., greatly pleased with the elevation of one who had been his own subject, sent three bishops and the abbot of St. Albans to congratulate his holiness on his election. The ambassadors met with a most gracious reception, and obtained from Adrian every thing that Henry desired, particularly a grant of the kingdom of Ir-

land, which Henry was at this time preparing to invade. Adrian died soon after this concession, A.D. 1159, having only held the pontificate for four years and ten months. Though he was a man of genius and learning, none of his works have been published except his letters.

RALPH DE GLANVILLE, CHIEF-JUSTICE OF ENGLAND.—The time of this celebrated lawyer's birth, and the circumstances of his early life have not been precisely ascertained. He was raised by Henry II. to the office of Justiciary, or as it has been since called, Chief-Justice of the King's Bench, and in that capacity was employed to make a digest of the common law, which he executed with great ability. He was as distinguished for his martial as well as for his legal abilities, and commanded the army by which William, king of Scotland, was defeated and made prisoner. On the accession of Richard I. he was compelled to join the crusaders, as some assert, for neglecting to comply with some arbitrary commands of that sovereign, and was slain at the siege of Acon, or Acre, A.D. 1190.

WILLIAM OF MALMSBURY.—This monkish historian is one of the best of his class; he is particularly remarkable for fidelity and impartiality, and merits the character of an industrious rather than an eloquent historian. He died at Malmsbury, A.D. 1143. The other most remarkable historians of this period were Simeon of Durham, Arhed of Revesby, Henry of Huntingdon, Roger de Hoveden, Gervas of Canterbury, Ralph de Diceto, Benedict of Peterborough, John of Salisbury, Peter of Blois, and Girald Barry, commonly called Giraldus Cambrensis.

STEPHEN LANGTON, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.—This prelate, who took such an active part in obtaining Magna Charta, was an Englishman by birth, but was educated on the continent. He became there so distinguished by his learning and piety, that he was created a cardinal. Innocent III. being appointed judge in a disputed election to the see of Canterbury, set aside both

candidates, and procured the mock election of Langton to the vacant primacy; King John, justly indignant at the artifice which his holiness had practised, broke off all connection with the see of Rome, and refused to admit Langton into his dominions. The Pope immediately laid the kingdom under an *interdict*, and finding that this was disregarded, he proceeded to excommunicate John, and formally gave his dominions to the king of France. Had John been a sovereign possessed of the confidence of his people, he might have set Rome and France at defiance; but being detested both by the barons and the people, he was compelled to save his crown by the most ignominious submission, (See Pinnock's England, Chapter X. section 1.) and Langton took possession of the archiepiscopal see, A.D. 1213. Langton soon became involved in a contest with the Romish see, by endeavouring to obtain compensation for the losses sustained by the inferior clergy during the late contest between the church and state, for no sooner had the King submitted to the Pope than he became an especial favourite of his Holiness, and all his former crimes were buried in oblivion. Langton perceiving that the rights of the clergy were thus sacrificed, and probably animated by the higher motive of attachment to the interests of his native country, stimulated the barons to demand a renewal of the charter which Henry I. had given to the English. The exertions of Langton were crowned with success; a confederacy of the barons was formed, of which Langton was the life and soul. The king was compelled to submit to their demands, and thus MAGNA CHARTA, the great foundation of British freedom, was obtained principally through the means of a prelate who had been illegally obtruded on the nation. (See Pinnock's England, chap. x. sect. 2.) The Pope was highly displeased with the conduct of Langton on this occasion, he laid him under sentence of suspension, reversed the election of his brother, who had been chosen Archbi-

shop of York, and threatened excommunication to all who should endeavour to compel the king to observe the charter. Langton did not, however, cease to struggle for his country, and remained at the head of those who laboured to support the charter until his death, which took place A.D. 1228.

ROBERT GREATHEAD, BISHOP OF LINCOLN.—This learned divine was born at Stradbrook, in Suffolk. His parents were so poor, that he was obliged to beg for his support, till the mayor of Lincoln, struck with his appearance, took him into his family, and put him to school. His abilities and industry soon procured him many patrons, and he studied with distinguished success in the Universities of Cambridge, Oxford, and Paris. After having passed through several lower gradations, he was at length consecrated Bishop of Lincoln, A.D. 1235. Here he soon distinguished himself by a spirited opposition to papal usurpation; and when the Pope nominated his nephew, a mere child, to the first canon's place that should become vacant in Lincoln, Greathead sent him a * spirited remonstrance, which was almost a direct defiance. Soon after this he died at his castle of Bugden, A.D. 1253, protesting against the papal usurpations with his last breath.

ROGER BACON.—This illustrious philosopher was born at Ilchester, A.D. 1214. Having passed through the University of Oxford with distinguished success, he removed to Paris, and there prosecuted his studies for some

* When Innocent received this remonstrance, he became almost insane with indignation. "How dare," said he, "this old, deaf, doating fool disobey my commands? Is not his master, the King of England, my subject, or rather my slave? Cannot he cast him into prison, and crush him in a moment?" But the cardinals, by degrees, brought the Pope to think more calmly, and to take no notice of this letter. "Let us not," said they, "raise a tumult in the Church without necessity, and precipitate that revolt and separation from us, which we know must one day take place." Remarkable words, when we reflect when and by whom they were spoken.

years. In the twenty-sixth year of his age he returned to Oxford, and became a member of the Franciscan order of monks in that city, that he might prosecute his studies in tranquillity and with advantage. By the generosity of his friends, he was enabled to spend, in experiments, a sum equal to about one hundred thousand pounds of our money. But during the twenty years that he was thus employed, he made more discoveries in the different branches of science, than were ever made by a single man in the same space of time. The principal of these were, the exact length of the solar year, a method for correcting the calendar; the art of making reading-glasses, the camera obscura, microscopes, telescopes, and various other mathematical and astronomical instruments; the discovery of gunpowder, and several other important chemical combinations: the formation and application of many curious mechanical contrivances; and many improvements in medicine and surgery. These great discoveries were the sources of many calamities to their unfortunate author; the monks, either believing or pretending to believe him a magician, subjected him to close imprisonment, and prohibited him from sending any of his works out of the monastery, except to the Pope. With little intermission, this confinement lasted the greater part of Bacon's life, until he was at length set at liberty by Pope Nicholas IV. at the request of several noblemen. Though he was now old, and much broken by his long and cruel sufferings, he still continued to prosecute his studies, by correcting his former works, till death put an end to all his calamities and all his labours, at Oxford, June 11, 1292.

MICHAEL SCOT.—This philosopher was contemporary with Bacon, and, like him, was accused of magic. The greatest service he rendered to literature, was the translation of Aristotle's works into Latin, at the command of the Emperor Frederick II., the most learned prince in Europe during the thirteenth century. Scot wasted his time and

talents in studying the absurdities of alchymy and judicial astrology. His too great curiosity in these matters made the vulgar look on him as a magician ; and so prevalent was this belief, that for several centuries after, many persons in Scotland dared not so much as to touch his works.

JOHN WICKLIFF.—This first of the English reformers was born in the county of York, A.D. 1324, and educated at Oxford, where he merited the highest academical honours, obtained successively the government of Baliol and Canterbury Colleges, and was finally appointed professor of divinity. His lectures were delivered to crowded audiences, and received with incredible applause. He boldly attacked the supremacy claimed by the Pope, censured several of the corruptions by which Christianity was disfigured, and exposed with cutting satire the follies and vices of the begging friars, who were the great supporters of the papal power. Having entered into holy orders, he obtained first the living of Fillingham in Lincolnshire, and afterwards the rectory of Lutterworth in Leicestershire, where he continued to spread his doctrines by the eloquence and energy of his sermons. A discourse that he published against the right of the Pope to claim homage and tribute from Edward III. so pleased the king, that he employed Wickliff in several embassies. In one of these, to the court of Rome, A.D. 1374, he discovered so many of the corruptions of that court, and of the errors of that Church, that on his return he became a more violent antagonist of the papacy than ever. Several attempts were made by the clergy and the emissaries of the Pope to procure the destruction of their formidable foe ; but the protection of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and the affection of the citizens of London for Wickliff's person, brought him safe through all these dangers. The violence of the clergy being thus checked by the favour of the nobility and the firmness of the people, Wickliff was allowed to complete

his favorite work, a translation of the New Testament. Soon after the completion of this great work, he was seized with a stroke of the palsy, and died the last day of December, A.D. 1384. His followers were called Lollards, and though bitterly persecuted, they shook the papal influence in England, and opened a door for the progress of the reformation in the following century.

MATTHEW PARIS.—The most valuable and celebrated of the early English historians. The first circumstance that we know of his life with any certainty, is, that he took the habit of a monk in the abbey of St. Alban's, A.D. 1217; afterwards he obtained the favour of his own sovereign, Henry III. by his learning, piety, and virtue, and was entrusted with several commissions of great delicacy. Foreign princes also shewed him great respect; he was invited by Haco, king of Norway, to visit that kingdom, and remedy the disorders that had crept into the Norwegian monasteries. He acted on this occasion also as ambassador for Louis IX. king of France, whose friendship he had gained by his learning and integrity. Matthew Paris possesses the most valuable attributes of an historian, fidelity and courage; he censures freely the conduct of kings and princes, and is particularly severe on the vices of his own order. His great failing is credulity, for he repeats as facts some of the most absurd miraculous stories that ever were invented.

JOHN GOWER.—One of the earliest English poets, was born about the year 1320. He wrote three poems of considerable length in the English, French, and Latin languages. He died in 1402, and was buried in the conventual church of St. Mary Overie, in Southwark, which he had rebuilt, chiefly at his own expence.

GEOFFREY CHAUCER.—This writer, who is universally considered the father of English poetry, was born in London, about the year 1328; but all attempts to discover the names and rank of his parents have been unsuccessful.

After prosecuting his studies at Cambridge and Oxford, Chaucer visited the continent; on his return from his travels he became a student of law in the Middle Temple. Becoming wearied of this dry pursuit, he resolved to try his fortune at court, and was appointed page to Edward III. in 1359, when the English court was in its highest splendour, adorned by the captive kings of France and England. (See Pinnock's *England*, chap. xiv. sect. 2.) Soon afterwards, he married the sister of the celebrated Catherine Lady Swynford, then mistress, and subsequently wife, of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. The connection of Chaucer with that celebrated prince, induced him to support the cause of Wickliff and his followers; but that party being soon after ruined by the superior influence of the court and clergy, the poet was obliged to seek for safety in flight, and retire to the continent. He remained abroad until he had consumed his property in supporting himself and his fellow exiles, which obliged him to return secretly into England, where he was arrested and thrown into prison. He procured his release by betraying some of the secrets of the party; by which, indeed, he obtained his liberty, but brought on himself an insupportable load of calumny. In this deplorable reverse of fortune he retired to Woodstock, and gave vent to his melancholy in several plaintive poems. After a few years, affairs began to take a more favourable turn; John of Gaunt recovered his former influence at court, and procured for Chaucer several grants from the crown, which enabled him to spend the last years of his life in ease and plenty. On the accession of Henry IV., the son of his patron, Chaucer returned to London, where he died, A.D. 1400, in the seventy-third year of his age. The poetry of Chaucer, notwithstanding the obsolescence of his language, is still read with pleasure; it displays a powerful genius, united with great skill in versification. His works prove him to have been a great

From the age of Henry IV. to the Reformati

Oh! what are men who grasp at fame sublime,
But bubbles on the rapid stream of time;
That rise and fall, that swell and are no more;
Born and forgot, ten thousand in an hour.

YOUNG

Fanatic fools, who in these twilight times,
With wild religion cloak'd the worst of crimes.

LANGHE

* SIR WILLIAM SAWTRE, *the first English L*
ant martyr.—The perusal of the former chapter w
bably have convinced the reader that there was, fr
earliest ages, a strong party in England opposed
introduction of the papal novelties, and that the po
of Wickliffe's doctrines shook the very foundation o
usurpations. Still the clergy were the most powerfu
in the British dominions, and Henry IV. to strengt
usurped throne, was obliged to conciliate the party
his father, John of Gaunt, had ever strenuously op
and to permit the persecution of the Lollards wh

bishop of Canterbury, presented a petition, signed by all his clergy, complaining of the progress of heresy; and in consequence a law was enacted sanctioning the establishment of an ecclesiastical tribunal, which should have the power of trying all persons suspected of holding tenets opposed to the Church of Rome, and delivering those who were convicted to the secular magistrates, who were to cause the condemned persons to be burned on some elevated place, in sight of all the people. The first person brought to trial under the new act was Sir William Sawtre, rector of St. Oswyth, London. He was accused before the convocation of the province of Canterbury assembled at St. Paul's. The chief charges urged against him were, that he refused to worship the cross, and that he denied the doctrine of * transubstantiation. The unhappy man endeavoured to avoid a painful death by explaining away the obnoxious doctrines. He said that he would pay a vicarious reverence to the cross, on account of him who died upon it; and that he believed that Christ was spiritually present in the Sacrament after the prayer of consecration had been said. But this gave no satisfaction. He underwent an examination of no less than three hours on this subject February 19, A.D. 1401; but when the archbishop required him to profess his belief, "that after the prayer of consecration, the substance of the bread and wine no longer remained, but was converted as truly into the very body and blood of Christ, as that body existed on

* The doctrine of transubstantiation and the real presence are sometimes very improperly confounded; the former asserts an actual change of the sacramental bread into the very body and substance of Christ; the latter merely asserts the spiritual presence of the Redeemer at this holy ordinance, and is, under different modifications, believed by almost all Protestant Churches. It will be seen in a subsequent note, that Lord Cobham endeavoured to save his life by insisting strongly on the real presence, but retains the words "form of bread" in his confession, by which he leaves his belief in transubstantiation doubtful.

earth, on the cross, and now exists in heaven," Sawtre replied, "that he could neither understand nor believe such a doctrine," and was instantly condemned. The archbishop delivered him over to the civil magistrate, hypocritically requesting that they would do him no harm, though he well knew that all the kindness they dared to shew him was to burn him to ashes. He was accordingly burned in Smithfield, and had the honour to be the first person in England who suffered that painful death, for maintaining those doctrines which are now maintained by all the Protestant Churches.

OWEN GLENDOUR.—The true name of this celebrated Welch chieftain was Owen ap Griffith Vaughan, Lord of Glendoudwy. In his youth he had studied law in the inns of court, had been called to the bar, and became Esquire of the body to Richard II. On the usurpation of Henry IV. he retired to his estate, and carried on a petty warfare with Reginald Lord Gray, of Ruthyn, about certain lands to which each of them laid claim. Henry espoused the cause of Lord Gray, and issued a proclamation from Northampton, September 19, A.D. 1400, denouncing Glendour as a rebel. Owen, on the very same day, proclaimed himself Prince of Wales, and burned the town of Ruthyn belonging to his adversary. Thus commenced a civil war, which lasted several years. Henry marched against the Welch, but was unable to penetrate their mountain fastnesses; and on the news of this success, the Welch students from the inns of court, the apprentices in London, and even the labourers who were scattered over England, returned home, and joined the standard of Owen, whom they looked on as the representative of their native princes. Lord Gray and Sir Edmund Mortimer, who were sent against him, were defeated and made prisoners. A new army, sent under the command of Henry Prince of Wales, had no better success, being forced to return by storms and tempests, raised, as the historians gravely tell us, by the magi-

cal arts of Owen Glendour. During fourteen years, the Welch prince maintained a vigorous warfare with England; but at the end of that time, Henry having subdued the different nobles who had excited rebellions against him in England, was enabled to send such an overwhelming force against Glendour, that the Welch every where submitted. Glendour concealed himself under different disguises, and at length died at his daughter's house in Herefordshire, September 30, A.D. 1415.

SIR JOHN OLDCASTLE, LORD COBHAM.—The cruel persecution of the Lollards continued through the entire reign of Henry IV., and Archbishop Arundel having gained the confidence of Henry V., prepared to continue in the new reign the same cruelties that he had exercised in the former. Soon after the coronation of the young monarch, several of Wickliff's works were burned by order of the convocation assembled at Saint Paul's; and the name of Lord Cobham being found in one of them, he was accused as the great protector of the Lollards, and summoned before the convocation. The Archbishop, however, dreading the danger of attacking a nobleman so high in the confidence of his sovereign, requested the king to have an interview with the accused, and endeavour to persuade him to submission. At this meeting Lord Cobham reprobated the corruptions of the papacy with so much freedom, that the monarch became disgusted, and gave him up to the will of the clergy. The primate having received the royal sanction, proceeded with great vigour against Lord Cobham, and when that nobleman disregarded his summons, excommunicated him as contumacious. Soon after, his lordship was arrested and brought before the convocation September 25th, A.D. 1413. Lord Cobham delivered in a * written confession of his faith; but this not being

* A copy of this curious paper cannot fail to be interesting, from its containing a cautious expression of the sentiments maintained by the Lollards at the time, and perhaps also from its giving us a specimen of

found satisfactory, he was found guilty of heresy, and delivered over to the secular arm. The condemnation of this

the English language at the period. It is, therefore, inserted here at full length.

“ I, John Oldcastell, knyght, Lord of Cobham, wole that all Crysten men wyte and understonde, that I clepe Allmighty God in to wyttness, that it hath ben, now ys, and ever, with the help of God, shall ben myn intent, and my wylle, to beleve faythfully and fully all the sacramentis that evyr God ordeyned to be do in holy churche, and moreover for to declare me in these four peyntes: I beleve that the most worschipfull sacrament of the auter is Christes body in forme of bred, the same body that was born of the blyssyd Virgyne, our Lady Saint Marye, don on the cross ded and buried, the thrydde day ros fro deth to lyf, the wyth body is now glorified in hevene. Also as for the sacrament of penance, I beleve that it is nedfull to every man that shall be saved, to forsake synne, and do due penance for synne, bifore doon, with trewe confession, very contrition and duhe satisfaction, as Goddes law lymiteth and teacheth, and ellys may not be saved. Whych penance I desir all men to do. And of as ymages I understonde, that thei be not of belive, but that thei were ordeyned syth the belive was zew of Crist be suffer-aunce of the churche, to be kalenders to lewed men, to represent and brynge to mynde, the passion of our Lord Jhesu Crist, and martirdom and good lyvyng of other seyntis; and that who so it be that doth the worschipe to dede ymages that is duhe to God, or putteth seych hope or trust in help of them as he shuld do to God, or hath affection in one more than in an other, be doth in that the grete sin of mawmentrie. Also I suppose this fully, that every man in this erthe is a pilgrime towarde blyss or towarde payne; and that if he knoweth not, ne wole not knowe, ne keep the holy commandments of God in his lyvyng here, al be it, that he goo on pylgrimage to all the world, and he dy so, he shall be dampned: and that knowyth the holy commandmentys of God, and kepeth hem hys end, he shall be saved, tho' he nevyr in hys lyve go on pilgrymage as men use now, to Cantirbury or to Rome or to any other place.”—The paper of additional articles required by the Archbishop is equally curious, and we shall consequently insert it, preserving the original orthography.

“ The fayth and determination of holy churche, touchyng the blisful sacrament of the auter is this: that after the sacramentall wordes ben sayde by a prest in hys masse, the material bred that was bifore, is turned into Cristis verray body; and the material wyn that was bifore is turned into Cristis verray blode; and there leweth in the auter to

nobleman was so unpopular, that the execution was delayed, and the prisoner found an opportunity of escaping from the tower, and flying into Wales, where he concealed himself several years. The oppression of the Lollards by Archbishop Arundel, and his successor, Chichely, provoked an insurrection, in which Lord Cobham was supposed to have participated; in consequence, a proclamation was issued, setting a price upon his head. At length, after many escapes, he was arrested by Lord Powis in December, 1418, and brought before the Parliament then sitting at Westminster. He was sentenced to be hanged as a traitor, and burned as a heretic, and was in consequence put to death, with circumstances of the most barbarous cruelty.

SIR THOMAS LITTLETON.—The civil wars between the rival houses of York and Lancaster greatly impeded the progress of English literature; and we meet but few names

material bred, ne material wyn, the wych wer ther byfore the seying of the sacramental wordes; How lyve ye this article?

“Holy church hath determyned that every Cristen man lyving here bodilich in erthe, oughte to schryve to a prest ordeyned by the churchie if he may come to hym; How fele ye this article?

“Crist ordeyned Seint Petir the apostell, to ben his vicarie here in erthe, whos see ys the churchie of Rome, ordeynynge and grauntyng the same power that he gaf to Petir shuld succede to all Petir's successours: the wych we callyn now popes of Rome; by whos power in churches particuler special ben ordeyned prelates as Archbyshoppes, byshoppes, curates and other degrees; to whom Cristen men oughte to obey after the lawes of the Churchie of Rome. This is determination of holy churchie; How fele ye this article?

“Holy Churchie hath determined, that it is needfull to a Cristyn man to goo a pylgrymach to holy places, and there specially to worschyppe holy reliques of seyntes, apostelys, martyres, confessours, and all seyntes approved be churchie of Rome. This is determination of holy churchie: How fele ye this article?”

Lord Cobham refused to go farther than he had done in his confession, and the Archbishop (as he says himself) modestly, mildly, and sweetly passed sentence on him as an obstinate and irreclaimable heretic.

worthy of record during this period, except the subjects of this and the following article. Sir Thomas Littleton, whose work on feudal tenures has been long the great authority on that subject, in the English courts of law, was born of an ancient and honourable family in the county of Worcester. He became a student of law in the Inner Temple, and after he had been but a short time at the bar, was appointed king's serjeant and justice of assize, A.D. 1455, and one of the judges of the Court of Common Pleas A.D. 1466. He held this situation during the greater part of the civil wars, and conducted himself with so much prudence, that he was equally respected by the rival factions of York and Lancaster. He died at an advanced age, A.D. 1481, leaving three sons to share his ample fortune.

SIR JOHN FORTESCUE,—This admirable lawyer and excellent man was the third son of Sir Henry Fortescue, Lord Chief Justice of Ireland. While a student at Lincoln's Inn, he was distinguished above all his contemporaries by his great knowledge of civil and common law. He was made a serjeant at law A.D. 1430, and raised to the high dignity of Chief Justice of the King's Bench A.D. 1442, in which he presided many years with great wisdom, justice, and rectitude. When the civil wars broke out, he adhered to the cause of his patron and sovereign, Henry VI. with unshaken fidelity, and shared in the misfortunes of the Lancaster party, having been attainted of high treason by the first Parliament of Edward IV. A.D. 1461, after he had fled into Scotland with his unfortunate master. He subsequently retired to France, and undertook the education of Prince Edward, for whose instruction he wrote his celebrated treatise in praise of English law. He accompanied Margaret in her last unfortunate expedition, (see Pinnock's *England*, chap. xviii. sect. 2.) and was made a prisoner at the fatal battle of Tewksbury. Edward spared the life of Sir John Fortescue, and re-

stored his estates, a favour which the veteran lawyer repaid by writing in defence of the house of York. The rest of his life was spent in literary retirement, where he composed an excellent treatise on the advantages of a limited monarchy, which having long remained in manuscript, was published by one of his descendants in the beginning of the last century. After a long and chequered life, he paid the last debt to nature in the 90th year of his age.

JOHN TIPTOFT, EARL OF WORCESTER.—This accomplished nobleman was born A.D. 1427, and succeeded to the title and estates of his father John Lord Tiptoft when he was about sixteen years of age. He was educated at Baliol College in Oxford, where he was much admired for his rapid progress in literature. Henry VI. created him Earl of Worcester and Lord High Treasurer of England when he was only twenty-five years old, and soon after appointed him the head of a commission to guard the narrow seas, a service that he performed with great advantage to his country. But nothing could conquer the earl's love of learning, he soon resigned his offices, and resolved to travel for improvement. Having visited the Holy Land, he returned to Italy and settled at Padua, where his abilities were honoured by all the learned men assembled at that celebrated university. From Padua he went to Rome, and delivered an oration before Pope Pius II. which drew tears of joy from his Holiness, and made him say aloud, "Behold the only prince of our times, who, for virtue and eloquence may be justly compared to the most excellent emperors of Greece and Rome." During his stay in Italy the earl made a very valuable collection of books, which, with princely liberality, he bestowed on the university-library of Oxford. When the civil wars of England were ended, by the elevation of Edward IV. to the throne, the earl of Worcester returned to England and made his submissions to that monarch. Edward loaded him with favours, appointing him successively Treasurer of the Ex-

chequer, Chancellor of Ireland, Lord Lieutenant of that kingdom, and Constable of England. But this prosperity was not of long duration, a new revolution took place. Edward having displeased Warwick, by whom he had been raised to the crown, was compelled to quit England and seek for safety abroad. (See Pinnock's England, Chap. XVIII. sect. ii.) The earl of Worcester was not so fortunate as to escape, he was seized in the attempt, conducted to London, and beheaded on Tower Hill by the command of the vindictive Margaret.

WILLIAM CAXTON, the first English printer. He was born A.D. 1412, and served his apprenticeship to an eminent mercer in the city of London. At an early age he was sent into Flanders as agent to the Mercers' company, and resided abroad about thirty years. During this time he acted as ambassador for Edward IV. at the court of Burgundy, and acquired great fame by his diplomatic skill. When about fifty-six years of age Mr. Caxton began to study the then novel art of printing, and acquired so great a proficiency, that he actually printed at Cologne, A.D. 1471, a book which he had translated out of French into English, called, *The Recule of the Histories of Troy*. Having presented a copy of this book to his patroness the Duchess of Burgundy, for which he was well rewarded, and disposed of as many copies as he could on the Continent, he came over to England, A.D. 1472, bringing with him the remaining copies as specimens of his skill in the art. Being encouraged by several public-spirited individuals, he set up a printing press at Westminster, and published there a translation of his own, called *The Game of Chess*, A.D. 1474, which was the first book printed in England. From this time to his death, A.D. 1491, he applied with so much ardour to translating and printing, that though he was an old man he published about fifty books, some of them large volumes, and many of them translated by himself.

JOHN CABOT.—This great navigator was a Venetian by birth, but having come over to England, he settled at Bristol, and soon became distinguished as a merchant and mariner. Having heard of the fame and success of Columbus, he presented proposals to Henry VII. for attempting similar discoveries. His proposals were accepted, and letters patent were granted to John Cabot and his three sons, to sail with five ships, under English colours, for the discovery of unknown countries. Cabot sailed from Bristol in spring, A.D. 1497, and, directing his course to the north-west, on June 24 he discovered the island of Newfoundland, and soon after the island of Saint John. He then sailed down to Cape Florida, and returned to Bristol with a good cargo, and three natives of the countries he had discovered.

PERKIN WARBECK.—The life of this celebrated pretender to the British crown, contains some of the most difficult problems in history. He claimed to be Richard Duke of York, the second son of Edward IV., whom, it is asserted, Richard III. had murdered in the Tower. Equal difficulties attend the belief and the rejection of this claim; if we believe that the adventurer was really the Duke of York, we are unable to account for his escape from the Tower, for the length of time that he kept himself concealed, and for the prevalence of the story first circulated by Buckingham when he rebelled against Richard (see Pinnock's *England*, Chap. XXI.) that the princes had been assassinated by order of that monarch. On the other hand, if we believe that Warbeck was an impostor, we must find it difficult to assign a satisfactory reason for the public declarations of the Duchess of Burgundy, the great personal resemblance between Warbeck and the Duke of York, his perfect acquaintance with the English language, the severity with which Henry VII. treated the Queen Dowager, and the absurdity of supposing that a foreign youth would project a plan for dethroning a powerful monarch by personating a youth who had perished in his

childhood. To enter at large into the examination of this question would far exceed our limits, but it is worthy of remark that Henry VII. never proved the early death of the Duke of York, and never established the fact of Warbeck's mean birth. Sir James Tyrrel, whom the historians of the Tudor party represent as the murderer of the princes, was a prime favourite of Henry's during the greater part of his reign, and survived Warbeck several years; but no use was made of his evidence during the time of Warbeck's efforts to obtain the crown. Nothing was even hinted at until Tyrrel was beheaded for a different crime in 1502, three years after the execution of Warbeck, and then it was for the first time reported that when in the Tower for treason, committed against Henry, he had confessed the murder. Again, it is manifest that there could be no more decisive refutation of Warbeck's claims than to bring him into the presence of the queen dowager and her relatives; a mother could have easily told whether he were her child or not; and an examination of the minute circumstances of childhood would thus have led to some satisfactory result; but this was never done. On the first rumour of Warbeck's appearance the queen dowager was, under frivolous pretences, put into close confinement, and all her property confiscated: and when Warbeck fell into Henry's hands, he was never confronted with those whom he asserted to be his relatives. The last point which merits to be noticed relates to the Duchess of Burgundy; she was a woman of very superior talents, and had nothing to gain by supporting the cause of an impostor, yet she advocated the claims of Warbeck so vigorously, that the historians whom Henry employed to draw up his account of the transaction, unanimously assert that Warbeck attempted his imposture at her instigation, while in the confession attributed to Warbeck, and published as his by Henry's authority, her name is not so much as mentioned. Indeed the absurdities and contradictions in that confes-

sion are so numerous and glaring, that it must at once be rejected as utterly unworthy of credit, and as this was the authorised version of the story put forth by Henry, its absolute falsehood affords no slight presumption for the truth of Warbeck's claim. (See Pinnock's England, Chap. XXII. sect. 1.)

RICHARD HUNNE.—The disputes that arose between the English parliament and the clergy, respecting this individual, may be considered as one of the principal causes of the great facility with which Henry VIII. prevailed on his people to shake off the papal yoke, and establish the independence of the English church, and some slight sketch of the proceeding will enable the reader to form a judgement of the state of affairs in England immediately before the Reformation. Richard Hunne, a respectable citizen of London, was sued by a priest, in the court of the papal legate, for the burial fees of his child; Hunne, by the advice of his counsel, sued the priest under the statute of *premunire* * in the court of King's Bench. The clergy, to extricate the priest, accused Hunne of heresy, and imprisoned him in the Lollard's Tower at St. Paul's, where he was found hanged, Dec. 4, 1514. The clergy gave out that he had committed suicide, but no credit was given to this story, and the coroner's jury returned a verdict of wilful murder against those who had the charge of the prison. The Bishop of London thought that if Hunne was convicted of heresy the people would cease to be interested in his fate, and accordingly held a court at St. Paul's on the 16th of December, for the trial of a man who had been ten days in his grave. Richard Hunne was there accused of all the heresies contained in the

* This statute was expressly designed to limit the papal authority in England; it enacted that if any person should sue a British subject in the court of any foreign power, he should be placed out of the king's protection, his property confiscated, and himself imprisoned during the king's pleasure.

preface to Wickliffe's Bible, a copy of which had been found in his house: proclamation was then made that if any one chose to answer for the accused he should appear immediately. No person, of course, stood forward, and sentence of condemnation was pronounced. In consequence of this solemn farce, the body of Hunne was disinterred and publicly burned in Smithfield, December 20. But this disgusting spectacle had quite a contrary effect to that designed by the actors; the House of Commons sent up a bill for the immediate trial of those whom a coroner's verdict had accused of murder, and though the bill was thrown out in the Lords, Henry VIII. was induced to side with the laity, and thus the clergy were forced to a compromise. It was agreed that Dr. Horsey, who was accused of the murder, should appear in the court of King's Bench and plead *not guilty*, and that his Majesty's Attorney General should express himself satisfied with the plea. This was considered a great triumph at the time, for the clergy had hitherto refused to submit to be tried in any of the civil courts.

CARDINAL WOLSEY.—This great example of the instability of fortune, was born at Ipswich, A. D. 1471, and was at an early period taken into the service of Fox, Bishop of Winchester, one of Henry the Seventh's most able ministers. On the accession of Henry VIII., Fox, anxious to retain his former influence, introduced Wolsey to the youthful sovereign, hoping that by his means he should be enabled to become prime minister. Wolsey soon acquired the love and confidence of the new monarch; with unexampled rapidity he was made almoner, a privy councillor, Bishop of Lincoln, and finally Archbishop of York. But the ambition of Wolsey was not yet gratified; by the influence of the king he was appointed Cardinal and Legate, A.D. 1516, and for ten years after continued to be the real ruler of England. The leading events of his public life will be found in Pinnock, Chap. XXIII. sects

1 & 2, and are sufficiently disgraceful ; but in private life Wolsey was an estimable character, courteous to his acquaintances, attached to his friends, and kind to his dependants. He was learned himself and an encourager of learning in others, charitable to the poor and the afflicted, whose blessings and tears attended him to his unhonoured grave.

SIR THOMAS MORE.—This great restorer of learning was born in London A.D. 1480, and being the only son of Sir John More, one of the judges of the King's Bench, great pains were taken with his education. Before he had reached his nineteenth year he had acquired a critical knowledge of the Latin and Greek languages, and had studied most of the sciences then in vogue. He was anxious to enter a monastery, but by the persuasion of his father was induced to study the law. After his call to the bar, he became so celebrated for his eloquence and ability, that he was retained in every case of importance. At the age of twenty-one he was elected to parliament, and in a few years became Speaker of the House of Commons. During the intervals of business, he kept up a regular correspondence with learned men abroad, and composed his *Utopia*, which was published A.D. 1516. Soon after this, Cardinal Wolsey introduced him to the king, by whom he was employed in several important offices and raised to the highest honours. At length, on the fall of Wolsey, he was appointed in his place Lord Chancellor of England, and was the first layman who exercised that high office. The seals were sent to Sir Thomas More October 25, 1530 ; he accepted them with real reluctance, as he foresaw the dangers to which he would be exposed by their possession. The affair of the king's divorce was then in agitation, (see Pinnock's *England*, Chap. XXIII. sect. iii.) of which Sir Thomas disapproved, and he justly apprehended that holding so high an office, under these

circumstances, would involve him in difficulties and dangers. He retained it about two years and seven months, and discharged the duties of it with great ability, integrity, and diligence. But there was one great blot in his character, More was a furious bigot, and bitterly persecuted all whom he suspected of heresy. It is even said that he tortured several of the accused with his own hands. By the resignation of his office Sir Thomas was reduced from opulence to a small pittance; he was consequently compelled to dismiss the greater part of his attendants, and retire to his house at Chelsea. He had not been out of office more than a year when the parliament passed the act of supremacy, and he was one of the first persons to whom the oath enjoined by that act was tendered; he refused to take it, and was accordingly sent to the Tower. Every possible effort was used to prevail on him to submit to the king's pleasure, and take the oath, but he obstinately persevered in his refusal. For this pretended crime he was brought to trial the 3d of July, 1525, and found guilty of high treason. The sentence was executed on the 6th of the same month. His facetious disposition was displayed even in the last moments of his life—"Assist me to get upon the scaffold," said he to a friend, "and let me shift for myself to get down." He said to the executioner, "You will get no credit by beheading me, my neck is so short;" and after he had laid his head on the block, he called on the executioner to stop till he had put aside his beard, for that it had committed no treason. Sir Thomas More would have been one of the most perfect characters in English history, had he acted on the liberal principles laid down in his own *Utopia*; even still we must rather pity his bigotry than condemn his character, for it was a fault more of the age than the man.

HENRY HOWARD, EARL OF SURREY.—This accomplished young nobleman was the first who introduced

blank verse into our language, and was the best of the English writers of sonnets *. He was equally distinguished as a warrior and courtier, but having unfortunately displeased Henry VIII. he was accused of having quartered the arms of Edward the Confessor with his own, and on this ridiculous charge was found guilty of high treason, and beheaded Jan. 19th, A.D. 1547.

* The sonnets of the Earl of Surry, formerly very popular, have long fallen into unmerited neglect. The following sonnet will give the reader some idea of his poetic powers: it is as beautiful a description of spring as there is in the language.

The soote season that bud, and bloome fourth brings
With grene hath cladde the hyll and eke the vale,
The nightingall with fethers new she singes:
The turtle to her mate hath told her tale:
Somer is come for every spray now springes,
The harte hath hunge hys olde hede on the pale,
The bucke in brake his winter coat he flinges,
The fishes flete with new repaired scale:
The adder all her slough away she flinges,
The swift swallow pursueth the flies smalle,
The busy bee her honey now she mynges;
Winter is worn that was the flower's bale.
And thus I see among these pleasant thynges,
Eche care decays, and yet my sorrow springes.

CHAPTER III.

BRITISH BIOGRAPHY.

From the Reformation to the Restoration.

By those three virtues be the frame sustain'd
 Of British freedom : independent life ;
 Integrity in office ; and o'er all
 Supreme, a passion for the common weal.

THOMSON.

THOMAS CRANMER, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.—We have seen in the two former chapters that there was always in England a party opposed to the domination of the Romish Church, and that the intemperate conduct of the clergy continued to extend and strengthen that hostility. We are now arrived at a period, the most important in our annals, when the independence of the English Church was finally established, and the yoke of Rome shaken off for ever. One of the most important instruments in effecting this great change was Thomas Cranmer. He was born in Nottinghamshire, A.D. 1489, and spent the earlier part of his life in retirement. When the subject of Henry's divorce became the subject of public discussion *, Cranmer happening to be in company with some of the courtiers, said that he thought it would be a wise course to submit the question of the legality of the king's marriage to the most celebrated European Universities. When Henry heard of this he was so pleased that he immediately took Cranmer into his service, and employed him to write in defence of the divorce. Cranmer proved a valuable assistant to the monarch in his difficulties : he procured opinions in the king's favour from twelve

* See Pinnock's England, chap. xxiii. sect. 2.

universities, besides an infinite number of similar declarations from the most eminent men in Europe. On the 13th of March, A.D. 1533, Cranmer was appointed by the king to the Archiepiscopal See of Canterbury, and immediately afterwards held an ecclesiastical court, in which he declared that the marriage between Henry and Catherine was null and void, and that the union of his majesty with Anne Boleyn, Marchioness of Pembroke, was good and valid. This proceeding completed the breach between the churches of Rome and England, but the progress of the Reformation was still very slow; Henry VIII. became virtually the Pope in England, and asserted his own infallibility. The king had written against Luther, and was not a little proud of the celebrity he had gained as a controversialist; he was therefore anxious to prevent the spread of the tenets he had opposed, and commenced a merciless persecution of all who supported the reformed doctrines. Under these circumstances Cranmer, who was sincerely attached to the Protestant doctrines, was obliged to proceed with great caution. He did, however, obtain some signal advantages, especially by procuring a translation of the Scriptures, an English Liturgy, and the destruction of the shrines of several pretended saints. When Henry found his last hour approaching he sent for Cranmer, but before his arrival the king was speechless; however he recognised the archbishop, and clasped his hand. Being desired by Cranmer to give him some sign that he died in hopes of salvation through the mercy of God and the merits of Jesus Christ, the king squeezed his hand, and soon after expired. Edward VI. was crowned on the 20th of February, 1547, by the Archbishop of Canterbury, and immediately proceeded to advance the cause of the Reformation with all his might. This pious young prince was more deeply imbued with the true spirit of Protestantism than the reformers themselves. When Cranmer brought to him a warrant for burning Joan

Bocher, the young king long refused to cause any person to be put to death for their religious opinions ; and when at length he yielded to the archbishop's pressing solicitations, he declared that if he had done wrong the sin lay at Cranmer's door. Cranmer opposed the attempts of the Duke of Northumberland to procure the crown for Lady Jane Grey ; and when all his efforts were fruitless, foretold the evils that the exasperated Mary would inflict on the Protestant party. But though Cranmer thus avoided the calamities by which the Northumberland party were overwhelmed, his zeal in the cause of the Reformation, and the great share he had in destroying the power of the Romish see, threatened him with still greater dangers. Having published a challenge to the opponents of the reformed religion to meet him in public disputation, he was arrested, and sent to the Tower. He probably confided in the gratitude of Mary, whose life he had saved, when her father Henry had determined to put her to death for refusing the oath of supremacy, and whose right to the crown he had so lately maintained against the Dudleys. He was soon after sent to Oxford, with the venerable Bishop Latimer and the pious Ridley, to attend a disputation : here the three Protestant prelates were convicted of heresy, and sentenced to the flames. On the 14th of October, 1555, Latimer and Ridley were brought to the stake, and suffered with that constancy which pure piety can alone inspire. Cranmer was detained in prison, and was induced, by hopes of a pardon, to sign his recantation ; but the court had resolved on his destruction, a warrant for his execution was intrusted to Dr. Cole, who did not, however, give Cranmer any warning of his impending fate. On the 21st of March, 1556, Cranmer was brought into a church, and Dr. Cole having ascended the pulpit, delivered a violent declamation against heresy, and called on Cranmer to glorify God by repeating his recantation. Cranmer then got up, and begging pardon of God for his

apostacy, asserted the principles of the reformed doctrine with equal vigour and eloquence. His enemies were at first astonished, but soon recovering from their surprise they drowned his voice with clamour, and hurried him to the place of execution. The pains of a cruel death seemed to give Cranmer less grief than the memory of his apostacy. When the flames were kindled he thrust the hand with which he had signed his recantation into the midst of the fire, and continued exclaiming, "this unworthy hand," until he expired.

CARDINAL POLE.—Reginald Pole was grandson to the unfortunate Duke of Clarence, whom Edward IV. had put to death in the Tower, and was consequently nearly related to the royal family of England. He was born A.D. 1500, and so distinguished himself by his early application to learning, that Henry VIII. his cousin, requested that he should be brought up to the Church, and presented him while yet a boy with several valuable ecclesiastical appointments. After having passed very creditably through the English universities he was sent to Padua, where he became a great favourite with all the men of learning who then abounded in Italy, and his fame was consequently soon diffused over Europe. He returned to England at a very unfavourable time; Henry was just beginning his war with the Pope about the divorce, and Pole was the most devoted slave to the papal authority that the Romish Church probably ever produced. The king made several efforts to draw his illustrious cousin over to his side, but in vain, and Henry resented this so warmly, that Pole thought it prudent to retire to the continent. Soon after he published a book "*on the Unity of the Church*," in which he attacked the character and conduct of Henry with great asperity; the king in revenge seized on all Pole's preferments, and confiscated his property. The Romish See, to compensate for these sufferings in its cause, created Pole a cardinal, and appointed

him legate to England. The latter appointment was intended to afford him a pretext for intermeddling in the affairs of England, and fomenting disturbances against the government of Henry. The effect of these attempts was unfortunate; they merely served to rouse the suspicions of Henry, and the entire family of the Poles, including the aged Countess of Suffolk, were sacrificed to the jealousy of the tyrant. After this the cardinal returned to Rome, and was on a vacancy elected to the Popedom, but he declined the office, either from modesty, or from a secret hope of obtaining the English crown by an union with the princess Mary. On the accession of Mary, Cardinal Pole prepared to exercise his legatine functions in England, but was detained for some time by the Emperor Charles V. who dreaded that his presence in England would prevent the marriage between Mary and his son Philip. At length, after the celebration of the nuptials, the Cardinal was permitted to proceed, and landed at Dover, Nov. 20th, 1554; his entry into London was very magnificent, but the silence of the multitude, who witnessed the spectacle, unequivocally proved that the Pope was no longer popular in England. The Cardinal addressed the parliament on the necessity of expediting the re-union of the English Church with the Romish See, and took every step in his power to accomplish this object. Although he did not proceed to such brutal extremities as Bonner and Gardiner, he did foster and encourage persecution, especially the trial and execution of Cranmer, whom he looked on as the principal author of English apostacy. Soon after his arrival he was elected Chancellor of both the Universities, and in Cambridge distinguished himself by one of those actions of mingled bigotry and absurdity which are so disgraceful to that age. He began by placing the churches of St. Mary and St. Michael under an interdict, because two German Protestants had been buried in them. He next issued a

process for the trial of these dead men, Bucer and Fagius, their bones were disinterred, brought into court, and the charge against them read; proclamation was then made for the defendants to answer to the charge: the dead could not speak, and the living were too much afraid of being hurried into their state to make any opposition; accordingly the accused were easily found guilty, and sentenced to the flames. Cardinal Pole was made Archbishop of Canterbury by Mary, but did not long enjoy that dignity. He died the 18th of Nov. 1558, the day after the death of Queen Mary, and with him perished the power of the papacy in England.

ROGER ASCHAM.—This excellent classical scholar was born in Yorkshire, A.D. 1515, and entered Cambridge at an early age, where he became very distinguished by his intimate acquaintance with the learned languages, especially the Greek, which had been previously neglected in England. In 1548 he became tutor to the princess Elizabeth, but does not appear to have been a considerable gainer by his pupil. The attachment of Ascham to the Protestant doctrines would have brought him into danger during the reign of Mary, but for the protection of Cardinal Pole, who admired the learning of Ascham, and procured him the situation of Latin secretary. On the accession of Elizabeth he obtained a small prebend in addition to his secretary's office, but his emoluments were small, and he died rather in straitened circumstances, A.D. 1568. The most valuable of Ascham's writings is his treatise on education; many of the improvements he suggested have been since adopted, but many more remain, which if introduced would unquestionably facilitate the acquisition of knowledge.

SIR THOMAS GRESHAM.—The reign of Elizabeth is justly looked upon as the most glorious in the annals of England, and there are few circumstances connected with it that are more deserving the approbation of posterity than

the attention paid to commerce, and the respect shown to those who by their exertions benefited the trade of the country. Gresham, a name of which every English merchant ought to be proud, was born A.D. 1519, and educated at Cambridge. When his education was completed he returned to London, and engaged in commercial pursuits, under the direction of his father, an eminent merchant. His abilities soon pointed him out as a proper person to manage King Edward's affairs in Antwerp, for the English monarchs were frequently compelled to borrow money from the Flemish merchants, who exacted an enormous interest. In this transaction Mr. Gresham displayed so much financial talent, that Queen Elizabeth continued him in the same employment, and was so pleased with his services that she honoured him with knighthood. In the year 1570 Sir Thomas Gresham, at his own expence, commenced the erection of a building where the British merchants could meet for the transaction of business, the Queen soon after visited the building, and gave it the name of the ROYAL EXCHANGE. Sir Thomas Gresham frequently entertained the Queen and her court, both at his city and country residence, and during his life was esteemed by his sovereign as a faithful subject and valuable counsellor. A short time before his death he founded Gresham College, in London, which has not as yet been made available for all the designs of the founder, but still has produced beneficial effects. He died A.D. 1579, universally lamented.

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.—Before the accession of Elizabeth England can scarcely be said to have had any navy, but during her reign the navy of Great Britain was raised to the first rank amongst the European powers. Hawkins, Frobisher, and others, by their vigorous efforts against the Spaniards raised in the nation a spirit of naval enterprize which has not been since extinguished. The subject of this memoir was the youngest son of a respect-

able family in Devonshire; he was entrusted at an early age to the care of Hawkins, who was his near relative, and served with him in America against the Spaniards. The early part of Drake's life was spent rather in a series of predatory excursions than in regular warfare, but on his return to England, in 1573, loaded with wealth, the fame of his achievements attracted the notice of Elizabeth, and made her unite in a project for giving a decisive blow to the Spanish influence in South America, by attacking the settlements on the western side of that continent. A squadron, under the command of Drake, was sent through the Straits of Magellan into the Pacific Ocean, A.D. 1577, and deprived the Spaniards of an amount of riches that is scarcely credible. The number of towns destroyed, and vessels taken by Drake, in this voyage, with inferior forces, seems more like romance than history. He returned to England in 1580, after having circumnavigated the globe, a feat never before performed by an Englishman; and after having shewn by several brilliant exploits, that nothing is impossible to the valour of British sailors. On his return, with almost incredible wealth, he was knighted by Elizabeth. When the Spanish armada sailed against England, Drake was appointed to assist Howard, Earl of Effingham, and had a principal share in the destruction of that formidable armament. He was afterwards sent to command the naval forces in the East Indies, where he obtained several new triumphs over the Spaniards, and greatly crippled their power in the American seas. He died in this command, A.D. 1596.

EDMUND SPENSER.—The time of this poet's death has not been precisely ascertained. He was educated at Cambridge, where he graduated, A.D. 1572. His first patron was the celebrated Sir Philip Sydney, who united in his character the valour and high spirit of chivalry, with all the taste and refinement of polished life. By the influence of Sydney, Spenser was appointed poet laureate,

but this was a barren honour, for Lord Burleigh, Elizabeth's minister, had no taste for poetry, and deemed that to pay for verses was a mere waste of money. Spenser was afterwards appointed secretary to Lord Gray, the deputy of Ireland, and subsequently obtained a valuable grant of the estates which had been forfeited in Desmond's rebellion. In the castle of Kilcolman, in the county of Cork, the greater part of the *Fairy Queen* was written. But Spenser had scarcely completed this beautiful poem when he lost all his property by the breaking out of Tyrone's rebellion. He returned to England, and died in great poverty, at London, A.D. 1598.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH.—This celebrated adventurer was born of a respectable family in Devonshire, A.D. 1552, and at a very early age adopted the profession of arms. He served as a volunteer in France, when only seventeen, he afterwards obtained a captain's commission in the army sent to reduce the Irish insurgents in Munster. He returned to England with the most flattering testimonials of his valour from the lord-deputy, and soon became a distinguished favourite at the court of Elizabeth. His first introduction to the particular notice of the queen is said to have originated in the following manner; Elizabeth, while walking with some of her courtiers, came to a plashy place, which she did not wish to cross; Raleigh observing her hesitation, threw down his cloak before her, and thus carpeted the dirty spot: gratified with such an extraordinary mark of respect, the queen sent for the young soldier, and retained him in her service. Some time after Raleigh wrote with a diamond on one of the palace windows,

“ Fain would I climb, yet fear I to fall,”

which the queen perceiving, completed the couplet by writing beneath,

“ If thy heart fail thee climb not at all.”

After this Raleigh was engaged in colonizing Virginia.

which he so named in honour of Elizabeth. As proofs of her favour the queen gave him several grants of forfeited land in Ireland, and knighted him. Raleigh was employed in preparing for the reception of the Spanish armada, and much of the glory of its defeat has been attributed to his judicious measures. He also commanded several expeditions against Spanish America; on his return from one of these he landed at Youghal, a seaport of some importance in the south of Ireland, where part of his property lay, and planted there some potatoes which he had brought with him from America. This was the first introduction of that vegetable into Ireland, but it has since become the staple food of the inhabitants. In 1596 Sir Walter was engaged with the Earl of Essex in the celebrated expedition against Cadiz, and had no small share in the many triumphs then obtained over the Spanish navy. When the Earl of Essex was beheaded, (see Pinnock's England, Chapter XXVI. Section 5.) Raleigh was accused of "consenting to his death," and this accusation, though unfounded, embittered all his future life. Soon after the accession of James I, Sir Walter Raleigh was accused of high treason, and together with the lords Grey and Cobham, convicted. Of this crime Sir Walter appears to have been innocent, and his trial was conducted with such a manifest determination for his destruction, that it stands pre-eminent for iniquity amongst the numerous mockeries of justice which have disgraced the annals of England. The indecent violence and ribald abuse shewn to the prisoner by Sir Edward Coke on this occasion, is a great blot on the character of that excellent lawyer. During twelve years Raleigh remained in prison under sentence, and to amuse himself in confinement, wrote his History of the World, and several minor works. The remaining events of his life will be found in Pinnock's England, Chapter XXVII. Section 2.

WILLIAM SHAKSPEARE.—The particulars of the life of this dramatist, the greatest that the world has hitherto

produced are very little known. He was born at Stratford-upon-Avon, A.D. 1564, of humble parents. Some juvenile indiscretions compelled him to come to London, where for some time he supported himself by holding gentlemen's horses at the doors of the theatre. Some time after he appears to have been employed in the theatre as an inferior actor, and soon began to write dramatic pieces. The number and variety of his productions, the immense power of mind and play of fancy, that they manifest, prove that he must have possessed a surprising genius. He is universally looked upon as *the national poet of Britain*, and there are few Englishmen who do not regard the fame of Shakspeare as in some degree identified with their own character. His great patron was the Earl of Southampton, who appears to have acted towards him with great generosity. Shakspeare died A.D. 1616, but his name will live as long as the English nation and the English language endure.

FRANCIS BACON, LORD CHANCELLOR.—The character given of this great man by Pope is, that he was

“ The wisest, weakest, meanest of mankind,”

and severe as the description is, it unfortunately is a perfect delineation. He was the son of Sir Nicholas Bacon, who for nearly twenty years held the office of Lord-Keeper under Queen Elizabeth, and had during that period maintained a high reputation for great learning and unblemished integrity; Francis was his father's second son, and was born 22nd of January, 1561. He was educated at Cambridge, and had run through the whole circle of the liberal arts, as then taught, before he had completed his seventeenth year. The sudden death of the Lord-Keeper left young Bacon in rather straitened circumstances, and he applied himself more through necessity than inclination to the study of the common law. He entered himself a member of Gray's-Inn, where his superior talents

rendered him the ornament of the house: as the gentleness and affability of his manners won him the affection of all its members. In his profession he quickly rose to so much eminence and reputation, that at the age of twenty-eight years he was named by Elizabeth her counsel extraordinary. Bacon's great patron was the Earl of Essex, and one of the causes of the quarrel between that unfortunate nobleman and Elizabeth was her refusal to bestow the post of Solicitor-General on Mr. Bacon. When the Earl was unable to procure him this post, he resolved to compensate Bacon out of his own private fortune, and accordingly bestowed on him Twickenham-Park, and the estate belonging to it. And yet when that hapless nobleman fell a victim to his own indiscretion and the malice of his enemies, Bacon libelled his memory by publishing a *Declaration of the Treasons of Robert, Earl of Essex*. This behaviour drew upon Bacon a heavy and general hatred at the time, and still continues a severe imputation on his memory. On the accession of James I., Bacon, who had been early in his homage and application for favour, was knighted by the new sovereign, and contrived to ingratiate himself with the king, though opposed by Cecil, the powerful Earl of Salisbury, and that great lawyer Sir Edward Coke. The publication of his treatise on the *Advancement of Learning*, at once raised Bacon to the summit of literary fame, and was the commencement of that great revolution in the sciences to which all modern improvements are owing. In the year 1607 Sir Francis Bacon obtained the post of Solicitor-General, after having supplicated in the meanest manner the Earl of Salisbury, Chancellor Egerton, and the king himself. In this situation he is unenviably distinguished by his servile support of the tyrannical principles of government which James introduced. In 1616 Bacon was appointed attorney-general, and immediately after was employed to conduct the prosecution against the Earl of Somerset and the

Countess of Essex, for poisoning Sir Thomas Overbury. (See Pinnock's England, chap. xxvii. sect. 2.) A dark veil hangs over a great part of this iniquitous transaction. Somerset was convicted on the clearest evidence: James, with the most awful imprecations on himself and his posterity, declared that he would never grant him a pardon; yet soon after Somerset was set at liberty, and a pension of four thousand a year continued to him during his life. Bacon attached himself warmly to the new favourite, George Villiers, afterwards Duke of Buckingham, and through his influence obtained the office of lord keeper, A.D. 1617. In 1619 Bacon was appointed lord high chancellor of England, and soon after baron of Verulam, and viscount St. Alban's. About the same time he published his *Novum Organon*, the most valuable work on science that has ever appeared, and which completed the great revolution that *The advancement of learning* had begun. Bacon had now reached the summit of his glory, and the hour of his ruin was at hand. The lavish profigacy of Buckingham and his minions had impoverished the king and exasperated the people. Bacon, who had been long honoured for his abilities, shared the popular odium with Buckingham, in whose crimes, contrary to his own feelings and opinions, he had participated. A parliament was summoned, and James, to screen Buckingham from the resentment of the Commons, gave Bacon to their vengeance. Twenty-eight articles of impeachment were sent up against the chancellor, charging him with the most flagrant acts of corruption and peculation. James, anxious to save his favourite by making Bacon the scapegoat, persuaded him to forego his defence, and the unfortunate chancellor put in an answer, explicitly acknowledging his guilt on every charge, and relying himself on the compassion of his judges. He was remitted by the king, and he was the rest of his life in retire-

he was employed in the improvement and enlarging of those works by which his name has been immortalized, and solaced himself under present censures and calamities with the anticipation of the fame he should receive from grateful posterity. He died at Highgate, A.D. 1626, in the 66th year of his age. One passage in his will is remarkable; after bequeathing his soul and body in the usual form, he adds, "My name and memory I leave to foreign nations; and to mine own countrymen after some little time be passed over."

SIR EDWARD COKE.—This great rival of Lord Bacon was born in 1550, and called to the bar A.D. 1578. Having married a lady of great wealth and connections his advancement was very rapid, and he soon became the most distinguished man in his profession. In 1592 he was appointed solicitor-general, and very soon after speaker of the House of Commons. Elizabeth was so sensible of Coke's merits, that she made him attorney-general, when he had been but a very short time in his former office, and in this capacity he was appointed to conduct the prosecution against the Earl of Essex. The ribald abuse which he poured forth against this unfortunate nobleman was shameful, and met with universal reprobation. On the accession of James, Coke was knighted, and soon after appointed to manage the trial of Sir Walter Raleigh: his conduct on this trial was so violent and indecent, that the judges, though prejudiced against the unfortunate prisoner, reprehended the vehemence of Sir Edward more than once. On the discovery of the gunpowder plot, Coke in some degree redeemed his character; he arranged the evidence in proof of that horrid conspiracy with unexampled skill, and in his different addresses to the jury on the several trials preserved a tone of dignified moderation, that powerfully contrasts with his proceedings on former occasions. In 1606 he was appointed a judge in the Common Pleas, whence in 1613 he was transferred to the

maintained the integrity of the bench, and secured administration of justice. At length, in consequence of his opposition to the arbitrary measures of the king, he was removed from his office : he did not, however, receive his disgrace with equanimity, but endeavoured to regain his place at the board, by mean submissions. These succeeded, that he was restored to his place at the board, but never again to the bench. Sir Edward Coke, a member of the last parliament summoned in James's reign, and was the principal leader of the opposition. This gave so much offence to the court-party, on the accession of Charles he was appointed solicitor-general to prevent his being returned to parliament. In 1628 he again became a member of the House of Commons, and distinguished himself in the debate on the illegal ship-money, by the solidity of the arguments which he used to shew that the king cannot raise money without the consent of parliament. He also had a considerable share in drawing up the *petition of right*, and procured the royal assent to that great charter of our liberties. When that parliament was dissolved he retired to his country seat, where he died A. D. 1634.

This prelate, whose character has been grossly maligned by his enemies, and overrated by his friends, owed most of his errors and misfortunes to the mistaken judgment of the latter. He was born in 1573, and educated at Oxford, where he obtained a fellowship at St. John's College, A.D. 1593. His sermons in favour of the court doctrines, passive obedience, and the divine right of kings, recommended him to James I. from whom he received the deanery of Gloucester. Through the interest of Buckingham he obtained the bishopric of St. David's, A.D. 1621, whence he was transferred to London, by Charles, soon after his accession. The bishop exercised his powers in the high commission-court with equal cruelty and indiscretion: the barbarous punishments inflicted on those who were suspected of puritanical principles excited bitter feelings of hostility in the nation, and increased the evils they were intended to suppress. In the year 1633 Laud was raised to the see of Canterbury, and not contented with the establishment of episcopacy in England, resolved to establish the same system in Scotland. (See Pinnock's England, chap. xxviii. section 2.) The unfortunate event of this effort is well known; the long parliament was assembled, and Laud was one of the first objects marked out by the vengeance of the Commons. On the 18th of Dec. 1640, Denzil Hollis impeached the primate of high treason against the constitution. He was arrested and detained in prison more than three years. He was brought to the bar on the 12th of March, 1644, and during his trial, which lasted twenty days, defended himself with equal ability and spirit. While the issue was yet pending the Commons brought in a bill of attainder against Laud, as they had previously done against his unfortunate friend Strafford, in consequence of which he was beheaded on the 10th of Jan. A.D. 1645.

JOHN HAMPDEN.—The particulars of Hampden's life are neither numerous nor interesting. He was born in

London, A.D. 1594, and brought up to the study of the law, which he did not long follow. He is remarkable for having been the first who resisted the illegal exaction of ship-money, and though the efforts he made at law failed, he roused the whole nation to a sense of their wrongs. He was elected a member of the long parliament, and though one of the most vigorous of the popular leaders, was greatly respected by the court. On the breaking out of the civil war he joined the parliamentary forces with a body of horse, and was mortally wounded, in almost the very first engagement, at Chalgrove-field. When Charles heard of his misfortune he sent his own physician to attend him; but his wound was beyond the reach of medical art, and he died, having escaped the calamities that this war brought on the country.

LUCIUS CARY, LORD FALKLAND.—This virtuous young nobleman was born at Burford, in Oxfordshire, A.D. 1610, and educated at Trinity College, Dublin; he was elected to parliament in 1640, and joined the body of patriots who were opposed to the measures of the court. But when these men, not content with establishing the liberties of England, proceeded to weaken and overthrow the monarchy, Falkland gave his support to the royal party, and voted with them against the abolition of episcopacy, &c. When the civil war commenced, he joined the standard of Charles, but with a heavy heart, for he dreaded the violence of his new friends, and feared that their success would be fatal to the liberties of his country. He was killed at the battle of Newbury, A.D. 1643.

ADMIRAL BLAKE.—Robert Blake was born A.D. 1598; he was educated at Oxford, where he is said to have been refused a fellowship for want of stature! The principal of the college to which he belonged, it appears, had wisely resolved to make personal beauty a qualification for literary honours. On the breaking out of the civil wars Blake joined the parliament, and was distin-

guished in the year 1645 for his gallant defence of Taunton. In 1649 he was appointed one of the commissioners of the navy, and sent in pursuit of Prince Rupert. In the execution of this service Blake pursued his antagonist from the harbour of Kinsale, in Ireland, to Lisbon, in Portugal; and when the Portuguese government afforded protection to the prince, Blake, by the capture of the Brazil fleet, forced the Portuguese to a change of politics, and Rupert was obliged to seek refuge in a Spanish harbour. Hither he was pursued by the persevering Blake, and in the harbour of Malaga the royal navy was completely destroyed. The war between the Dutch and English, in 1652, gave Blake an opportunity of shewing his superior skill and bravery by bringing him into contact with the celebrated admirals Van Trump, De Ruyter, and De Witt: with such antagonists, not to be defeated was in itself a victory, but Blake did more, he was superior to the Dutch in every battle, and compelled them to keep within their own harbours. The greatest exploits of Blake were performed during the Spanish war, which broke out in 1656. (See Pinnock's England, chap. xxix. sect. 3.) The final blow to the naval power of Spain was given on the 13th of April, 1657. The Plate-fleet, which Blake had endeavoured to intercept, arrived in the harbour of Santa Cruz, and Blake resolved to attack it in the port. The Spanish admiral prepared to give him a warm reception; besides the two strong castles by which the harbour was defended, he erected batteries along the shore, at every favourable spot, and moored the galleons, with their broadsides facing the entrance of the harbour. Undismayed by these formidable preparations, Blake entered the harbour, and destroyed the entire fleet. His object had been scarcely effected, when the wind suddenly changed, and the English fleet were enabled to sail out almost without injury. After this exploit Blake, finding his health beginning to fail, resolved to return home: he

died almost in sight of England, 17th of August, 1657, and was interred at the national expense in Westminster Abbey. But after the Restoration, Charles II. ordered his body to be disinterred, and removed to some other place, an example of mean revenge well worthy of the degraded Stuarts.

CHAPTER IV.

BRITISH BIOGRAPHY.

From the Restoration to the French Revolution.

To mute, and to material things
New life returning summer brings,
But oh ! my country's widow'd state
What second spring can renovate ?
What powerful call shall bid arise
The buried warlike, and the wise ;
The head that thought for Britain's weal,
The hand that grasped the victor's steel ?

SCOTT.

EDMUND WALLER.—This excellent poet and contemptible politician was born A.D. 1605. After having passed through Eton and Cambridge he was elected to parliament at the early age of seventeen, and soon after published some poems. During the long intermission of parliaments in the reign of Charles I. Waller lived in retirement, but when the long parliament met in 1640, Waller was elected a member, and became a distinguished leader of the party opposed to the court. He did not, however, join in all their excesses, but like his friend, Lord Falkland, endeavoured to protect those prerogatives of the crown which are essential to the existence of monarchy. A little after the breaking out of the civil war, several mode-

rate persons resolved to compel the parliament to make peace by force ; and perhaps some of the conspirators were inclined to proceed to further extremities. The scheme was suspected, and Waller, who had joined in it, was one of the first arrested ; his pusillanimity discovered the entire ; “ he was so confounded with fear,” says Lord Clarendon, “ that he told whatever he had heard, said, thought, or seen, all that he knew of himself, and all that he suspected of others, without concealing any person, of what degree or quality soever, or any discourse which he had ever upon any occasion entertained with them.” The conclusion of the business was, that most of the conspirators were hanged, and that Waller was expelled the house, fined ten thousand pounds, and driven into exile. He supported himself abroad by the sale of his wife’s jewels, until his resources were exhausted ; at length Cromwell, after earnest solicitation, permitted him to return home, and Waller repaid the Lord Protector with the noblest tribute of his muse. At the Restoration Waller was amongst the foremost to pay his court to Charles, and his wit and poetic powers easily procured him favour in a court where all principle was disregarded. He sat in all the parliaments during this reign, and in the first of James the Second, but did not take any leading part in public business. He died at Beaconsfield, A.D. 1687, in the 83d year of his age.

JOHN MILTON.—This great poet was born in London, A.D. 1608, and after being educated at St. Paul’s school, was sent to Cambridge, where he took his degree of Master of Arts in 1632. After leaving the University he returned to his father, and employed himself in the study of the classics. About this time he wrote his beautiful poems *Allegro*, *Penseroso*, *Comus*, and *Lycidas*. In 1638 he went to travel, and acquired the friendship of the most distinguished men of learning on the continent. On his return he opened a school in Aldersgate-street, but on

the breaking out of the civil war he supported the cause of the parliament with all the powers of his vigorous pen. His treatise on the liberty of the press, and his defence of the English people, are the two most remarkable of his prose works; and to these he probably owed the situation of Latin secretary, which he held under the parliament, and during the usurpation of Cromwell. On the Restoration Milton lost his office, and was compelled to seek safety in retirement: he had become blind a little before, and this with his altered circumstances, reduced him to great distress. But his powerful mind was now centered in itself, and he produced the most sublime poem that adorns the literature of any language, the *Paradise Lost*. In 1670 he published *Paradise Regained*, which, though as a whole inferior to the former, contains many passages of superior beauty. Together with it appeared his tragedy of *Sampson Agonistes*, composed upon the model of antiquity, and not designed for the stage. He died Nov. 1674, in his 66th year.

EDWARD HYDE, EARL OF CLARENDON.—This statesman was descended of a respectable family. He was born A.D. 1608, and educated at Oxford. He became subsequently a student of the middle temple, and was called to the bar, but does not appear to have had very extensive practice. In 1640 he was elected to Parliament, and after remaining a short time in moderate opposition, embraced the party of the court. During the civil wars he supported the cause of royalty with his pen, and shewed himself an elegant rather than a powerful writer. On the total overthrow of the royal party, Hyde accompanied Prince Charles into exile, and served him faithfully during all the time of his difficulty and distress. At the restoration, he was appointed Lord Chancellor; but he had nominally held the office before, for Charles, during his exile, regularly nominated his followers to the different offices of state, and kept up all the forms of a court. The marriage of the

Chancellor's daughter with James Duke of York, exposed him to great obloquy, and his conduct on the occasion does not seem to have been remarkable for candour and integrity. Being now brother-in-law to the king, he was created Earl of Clarendon, and appeared to have reached the summit of his ambition. The marriage of Charles II. with the Princess of Portugal, in 1662, brought several calamities on the Chancellor; he was unjustly accused of having encouraged this marriage, knowing that the princess was barren, in order to secure the crown of England for his grandchildren. The profligate courtiers of Charles disliked Clarendon for the severity of his morals, and the purity of his life, and earnestly solicited his dismissal from the king. With his usual ingratitude, Charles consented to the sacrifice of his benefactor, and soon after the earl was impeached in the House of Commons for high crimes and misdemeanors. By the king's command, he did not wait for a trial, but quitted England, A.D. 1667. He spent the remainder of his life in exile, principally employing himself in writing the history of his own eventful times. He died A.D. 1694.

SIR MATTHEW HALE.—This great ornament of the bench was born in Gloucestershire, A.D. 1609. In his youth he was wild and dissipated; but when he and some of his friends had one night drunk to excess at a tavern, one of the party fell down, to all appearance, dead: alarmed at this circumstance, Hale fell on his knees, and supplicated the Author of mercy to spare his young companion, and bound himself by a solemn vow never to transgress sobriety for the future. The young lad recovered, and Hale kept his vow inviolate to the day of his death. After this, Hale applied himself diligently to his professional pursuits, and during the civil war, could not be prevailed on to join either party, but adhered steadily to the study of the law. Cromwell, soon after his usurpation, appointed him one of the judges, and frequently com-

plained afterwards of the unswerving integrity with which he discharged the duties of his office. The Protector made several attempts to gain Hale over to his party, and to persuade him to favour the partizans of the Protectorate, but the judge steadily refused, and always preserved the strictest impartiality. Soon afterwards Hale began to doubt the legitimacy of the authority under which he acted, and refused any longer to try criminal cases. On the death of Oliver, he declined to receive a commission from Richard Cromwell, declaring that he could not conscientiously retain office under an usurpation. On the restoration, he was appointed a baron of the Exchequer, and in 1671 made Chief Justice of the King's Bench. He discharged the duties of this office with the highest honour to himself, and to the most perfect satisfaction of all the suitors who came before him, and was the most generally and most deservedly beloved of all the judges that have ever been in England. He died A.D. 1676.

JOHN DRYDEN.—The reign of Charles II., though in some respects the most disgraceful in our annals, was prolific in good writers. Cowley and Butler, though neglected by the court, contributed to enrich our literature; the latter especially, by the publication of *Hudibras*, introduced a new species of humorous poetry, which still continues to be peculiar to England. But the greatest poet of this period was Dryden; for though Milton published *Paradise Lost* in the reign of Charles, his style was formed during the Commonwealth, and so far as a poem can be said to have originated from circumstances, is derived from that period. John Dryden was born in Northamptonshire, A.D. 1631, and was educated at Westminster and Cambridge. His first published poem was *Heroic Stanzas on the Death of the Lord Protector*; but at the restoration his muse changed her politics, and the adulatory strains of Dryden were pre-eminent for their excessive flattery, even among the court poets of that ser-

vile period. He was rewarded by the offices of poet laureate and historiographer to the king, from which he obtained about 200*l.* per annum. About this time, he produced several rhyming plays, written in an extravagant bombastic style, for which he was severely satirized in the mock heroic drama of the *Rehearsal*. In the year 1681, at the express desire of the king, he wrote his celebrated political poem, *Absalom and Architophel*, in which the incidents in the life of David were adapted to those of Charles II. in relation to the Duke of Monmouth and the Earl of Shaftesbury. This was soon followed by *The Medal, a Satire on Sedition*, one of the most severe party productions that was ever written. On the accession of James II. Dryden, to ingratiate himself with that monarch, embraced the Romish religion, and wrote, in defence of his new faith, the poem of *The Hind and Panther*, which contains some beautiful imagery, mingled with no small portion of absurdity. But the revolution brought a fatal change to Dryden's fortunes; the Whigs had not forgotten the severity with which they had been treated, and all his posts and pensions were taken away. During the last ten years of his life, he literally wrote for bread; and it was during this period that he wrote his most valuable poems and translations. He died on the first of May, 1700, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, next to the tomb of Chaucer.

JOHN LOCKE.—This great philosopher was born in Somersetshire, A.D. 1632, and educated at Oxford. He was, at an early period, accidentally introduced to Lord Ashley, afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury, and seems to have formed an attachment to that nobleman, which made him blind to the serious defects of his character. James II., who resented bitterly the attempts made by Shaftesbury to deprive him of the right of succession by the celebrated Exclusion Bill, persecuted all whom he suspected of attachment to that nobleman, and by an extraordinary

stretch of authority, deprived Locke of his studentship in Oxford. Locke supported himself by his practice as a physician, and when the revolution had removed James, wrote in defence of that great national change. In 1690 he published his *Essay on the Human Understanding*, which he continued to improve to his death. To this great work we owe almost the existence of the science of mind, for it was the first that ever taught how to analyze intellectual operation. Locke died the 18th of October, 1704.

SIR ISAAC NEWTON.—This great improver of natural philosophy was born on Christmas-day, A.D. 1642, at Woolsthorpe, in Lincolnshire. His attention was early directed to the principles of mechanics and mathematics, and at Cambridge he enjoyed the advantage of pursuing these studies under the guidance of that celebrated mathematician, Dr. Barrow. Sir Isaac Newton's first discovery was the *Theory of Light and Colours*, which is said to have been suggested to him by observing the prismatic hues of a soap-bubble; an equally trivial circumstance, the fall of an apple, is said to have suggested the theory of gravitation. Newton's great work, *The Principia*, was published A.D. 1687, and his *Optics* 1704. About the same time, he was engaged in a controversy with Leibnitz, who laid claim to the invention of fluxions, which Newton had discovered A. D. 1665. Queen Anne conferred on him the order of knighthood A.D. 1705. Sir Isaac devoted a great portion of his time to the elucidation of the Scriptures, and wrote an excellent work on Chronology, which has been the ground-work of all subsequent systems. He died March 20th, 1727.

JOSEPH ADDISON.—The distinguished editor of the *Spectator*, was the son of a clergyman in Wiltshire, where he was born, A.D. 1672. He was educated at Oxford, where he distinguished himself by his proficiency in classical literature, especially Latin poetry. In 1695 he com-

menced his career as a literary man by a complimentary poem on one of the campaigns of King William, addressed to the Lord Keeper Somers. He was rewarded for this by a pension of 300*l.* a year, which enabled him to indulge his inclination for travel. He published a poetic epistle from Italy, and a prose narrative of his travels in that country, which are distinguished equally by their pure spirit of liberty and piety. His greatest political poem, *The Campaign*, appeared in 1704, and was rewarded by the post of Commissioner of Appeals. His most celebrated poem was *The Tragedy of Cato*, one of the most classical dramas in the English language. The papers written by Addison in the *Tatler*, *Guardian*, and *Spectator*, are the most valuable portion of these celebrated essays, and are among the most perfect models of elegant and correct writing. In 1717 he was appointed one of the secretaries of state, but was soon after obliged to resign from ill health. He died June 1719.

MATTHEW PRIOR.—Prior was born in London, A.D. 1664, and in his early life was employed to assist his uncle, who kept a tavern in Charing-cross. The Earl of Dorset having one day found him reading Horace, asked him some questions, and was so pleased with his conversation, that he resolved to give him an university education. He accordingly proceeded to Cambridge, and soon after his graduation was elected to a fellowship at Saint John's. Soon after this, he was introduced at court by his patron, the Earl of Dorset, and was so effectually recommended, that he was appointed, in 1690, secretary to the English plenipotentiaries who were assembled at the Hague. His productions for several years consisted chiefly of courtly odes, which were rewarded by successive diplomatic offices. In the latter years of Queen Anne's reign, when the Whigs were removed from office, Prior deserted them as a falling party, and ever after adhered to the Tories. He was engaged in conducting the famous treaty of Utrecht, and

afterwards held the post of British Resident at the court of France, until he was superseded by the Earl of Stair, after the accession of George I. On his return to England he was involved in the calamities that overwhelmed his party, (see Pinnock's *England*, chap. xxxiv. sect. 1,) and was long kept in prison on a charge of high treason, but was never brought to trial. The rest of his life was spent in retirement, and during this period his most admired compositions were written. He died in September, 1721, at the seat of the Earl of Oxford, who had been a sharer in his political calamities.

JOHN CHURCHILL, DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.—This great general was the son of Sir Winston Churchill, a gentleman attached to the court of Charles II. He was born on the 24th of June, 1660, and at an early age was appointed page of honor to James Duke of York. By the interest of his patron, he obtained a commission in the army at an early age, and served as a captain of English auxiliaries under Marshall Turenne, in the campaign of 1672. Here, by the elegance of his manners, as well as by his courage and conduct, he acquired the esteem of that distinguished master in the art of war, and returned to England covered with glory. In 1682 he was created Baron Churchill, through the interest of James Duke of York, and appears to have been long a favourite with that unfortunate prince. On the landing of William, Lord Churchill deserted his former master, and had a considerable share in bringing about the revolution. As a reward, William created him Earl of Marlborough, and entrusted him with the command of an expedition to reduce the south of Ireland. Marlborough conquered Cork and Kinsale, and completely destroyed the influence of James in that part of the country. In the year 1690 Marlborough served as a general in the British army in Flanders, and acquired new honors; but King William, partly jealous of his fame, and partly displeased at the warmth with which

he espoused the cause of the princess Anne, afterwards Queen of England, deprived him of all command. On the accession of Anne, the cloud which had hitherto obscured the fortunes of Marlborough was removed; he was appointed captain-general of the British forces in Holland and Flanders, A.D. 1702, and for his services in the first campaign was created a duke, and soon after obtained the command of all the allied forces. The victories obtained by the Duke of Marlborough during the war of the succession, have been scarcely effaced by the brilliant victories of the GREAT HERO of the present day; and the names of Schellenberg, Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, will probably form part of an Englishman's boast to the latest posterity. Like his illustrious successor, the Duke of Wellington, Marlborough was as distinguished a statesman as he was a general; but, unlike him, he was destined to feel the ingratitude of his country. On the change of ministry in the latter years of Queen Anne's reign, Marlborough was at first treated coldly, and soon after threatened with impeachment. In 1712 he was deprived of all his employments, and forthwith went into voluntary exile. On his landing at Ostend, General Cadogan, who commanded the British forces then assembled there, received his illustrious countryman with the usual military honors, and was immediately after cashiered by the Tory administration; an action of a mean and vindictive spirit, that must ever reflect disgrace on Harley, Earl of Oxford, by whom it was perpetrated. Marlborough remained abroad until the accession of George I., when he returned to England; but he never again took a lead in public life. He was seized with that most terrible of all diseases, mental imbecility, and continued to survive in this calamitous state, a melancholy spectacle of human greatness, until he at length ended his life on the 16th of June, 1722.

LORD SOMERS.—This eminent lawyer and patriot was

born in Worcester, 1652; he was educated at Oxford, and soon after his graduation was called to the bar, where he acquired considerable eminence, as well by his intrepidity as by his abilities. He was one of the counsel for the seven bishops in the reign of James II., and on the accession of William was successively appointed Solicitor, Attorney-General, Lord Keeper, and Lord Chancellor. In the two latter offices he displayed as much, if not more, legal ability than ever, at any other period, graced the Court of Chancery, and was, perhaps, the most universally admired of all who have ever discharged that office. He was removed on the change of ministry A.D. 1700, and spent the remainder of his life in retirement. He died A.D. 1716. Lord Somers had a principal share in effecting the revolution, and to him it is in a great measure owing, that such an important change in the government was effected, without any injury to the constitution.

ALEXANDER POPE.—The reign of Queen Anne has been justly called the Augustan age of English literature, but Pope appears to have been its greatest ornament. He was born in London, A.D. 1688, and received a private education. From his earliest years he showed a decided taste for poetry. He says of himself,

While yet a child, and still unknown to fame,
I lisp'd in numbers, for the numbers came.

His first publication was his *Pastorals*; these were followed by the *Essay on Criticism*, one of the most beautiful didactic poems in any language, and the *Rape of the Lock*, a mock-heroic poem of unrivalled elegance. After publishing several minor poems, he brought out his great work, the *Translation of Homer*, in 1716. His next publication was the *Dunciad*, a bitter satire on cotemporary authors; and soon after he produced his *Essay on Man*, and *Moral Epistles*. The popularity and excellence of

Pope's writings have been proved by their forming a *school* of English poetry, which, in part, continues to the present time. He died on the 30th of May, 1744.

JONATHAN SWIFT.—This writer, who has carried that species of poetry called humorous satire to a height never before attained, was born in Dublin, A.D. 1667. He was educated in the Dublin University, but from his dislike to mathematical studies, could only obtain his degree *by special favour*. His first patron was Sir William Temple, and on his death he attached himself to the Earl of Berkeley, one of the lords justices of Ireland, who took him over to Dublin as his chaplain, and gave him the living of Laracor, in Meath. Swift began soon to be distinguished as a political writer, and in 1704 he published the *Tale of a Tub*, a work of infinite humour, but sullied by profaneness and obscenity. When the Tory ministry came into power, Harley, Earl of Oxford, endeavoured to procure an English bishoprick for Swift, but Queen Anne steadily refused to promote a man to the episcopal dignity, whose belief in Christianity was suspected. The only preferment that Swift could obtain was the deanery of Saint Patrick's, Dublin; and soon after, the death of Queen Anne, and consequent dissolution of the Tory ministry, completely cut off all his hopes of advancement. The triumph of the Whigs bitterly annoyed Swift, and he took a severe revenge by publishing the *Legion Club*, a cutting satire on the Irish house of parliament. Soon after, by the publication of the *Draper's Letters* he acquired so much popularity in Dublin, that he was usually called *King of the Mob*. His last work, *Gulliver's Travels*, has been the most generally admired, for, its exquisite invention delights youth, and its political lessons may instruct age. Swift, before his death, fell under the fate which he had long dreaded, a deprivation of intellect; he remained in absolute idiotcy until his death, which took place A.D. 1744. He bequeathed the greater part of his property to

an hospital for lunatics and idiots in Dublin, which is called after his name.

HENRY ST. JOHN, LORD BOLINGBROKE.—This statesman was born at Battersea, A.D. 1672, and educated at Oxford. He was elected to parliament at an early age, and in 1704 became secretary at war, through the influence of his friend Harley. In 1707 they were both compelled to resign; but in 1710 Queen Anne placed Harley at the head of a new administration, and Bolingbroke obtained a place in the cabinet and a peerage. He had the principal share in the negotiations at Utrecht, and on the accession of George I. found it necessary to retire to the Continent, to avoid the consequences of an impeachment. In 1723 he obtained a pardon, and on his return met his friend Dr. Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester, going into banishment: the learned but unfortunate prelate facetiously remarked that they were exchanged. Although Bolingbroke was permitted to return to his country, he was not allowed to take any share in public affairs, and he retired to his country seat, persuading himself and endeavouring to persuade the world that his disappointed ambition was pure patriotism. His writings are remarkable for the elegance of their style and beauty of arrangement. But they are fatally poisoned by infidelity. Bolingbroke was intimate with all the great men of the period, and especially was the familiar friend of Dryden, Pope, and Swift.

JAMES THOMSON.—This eminent poet was born at Kelso in Scotland, A.D. 1700; when about twenty-five years old he came to London as a literary adventurer, and brought himself into notice by the publication of his *Winter*. In consequence he was encouraged to complete the *Seasons*; and few works, in a short time, obtained so much popularity. His other most celebrated poems were *Liberty* and the *Castle of Indolence*, the latter of which is, by some critics, preferred to all his other works.

EDWARD YOUNG, D.D.—The life of this eminent

writer of sacred poetry affords but few materials for biography. He was born A.D. 1684, and educated at Winchester and Oxford. He distinguished himself early as a poet, but it is rather discreditable to him that he sought patrons among those in place during all the political changes of his time. His best tragedy was the *Revenge*, which he dedicated to the Duke of Wharton. His most celebrated poems were *The Love of Fame* and the *Night Thoughts*. He died A.D. 1765.

OLIVER GOLDSMITH.—This truly delightful writer was born at Elphin in Ireland, A.D. 1729, and was educated at Trinity College, Dublin. Thence he removed to Edinburgh as a medical student, but does not appear to have paid much attention to his studies. In 1754 he left Edinburgh, and rambled over a great part of Europe; after various vicissitudes, he returned to London in 1758, and for some time supported himself by his pen, in performing trifling jobs for the booksellers. At length the publication of the *Traveller*, in 1765, completely established his fame, and introduced him to some of the most distinguished literary characters of the time. His poetical fame reached its summit in 1770, by the publication of the *Deserted Village*, the most popular poem in the language. His prose works consist of two comedies, the pleasing novel of the *Vicar of Wakefield*, several humorous essays, the *Histories of Greece, Rome, and England*, and a *History of the Earth and animated Nature*, taken principally from Buffon. He died the 4th of April, A.D. 1774.

DOCTOR SAMUEL JOHNSON.—Johnson was born at Lichfield, A.D. 1709, and was sent to Oxford, but never took his degree. At first he endeavoured to support himself by setting up a school, but this failing, he came to London, trusting to his pen for a livelihood. The first work that brought him into notice was *London*, a poem, in imitation of the third satire of Juvenal, this was followed

by the *Vanity of Human Wishes*, an imitation of the tenth satire of the same author, which may be said to reach the sublime of ethical poetry, and to stand at the head of classical imitations. In 1750 he commenced the publication of the *Rambler*, a periodical of great merit, but which appears to have been considerably overrated. His greatest work, an English Dictionary, appeared in 1755, and was received with the greatest applause by the public. His next most important works were an edition of Shakespeare and the *Lives of the British Poets*. Dr. Johnson was undoubtedly superior to all his literary cotemporaries, but his violent prejudices, and attachment to some peculiar opinions, have greatly contributed to diminish the value of his works to posterity. He died Dec. 13, 1785.

JOHN WESLEY.—This venerable founder of the sect of Methodists, was born A.D. 1703. A providential escape from fire in his infancy, seems to have had the effect of giving him a serious cast of mind from his earliest youth. He was educated at Oxford, and from the regularity and method of his attendance on the prescribed ordinances, he and some others received the name of Methodists. After quitting college, he went as a chaplain to the then infant colony of Georgia, in North America, but becoming involved in some disputes with the settlers, he returned to England, and in 1735 commenced his labours as the founder of a new sect. There may be, and indeed there is, much difference of opinion with respect to the wisdom and propriety of his proceedings, but all must acknowledge the purity of his motives, the integrity of his life, and the ardent zeal with which he laboured to propagate the principles of the Gospel. He was a very voluminous author, and his works are greatly esteemed by his followers; they display a great deal of simplicity and sincerity, but are not remarkable for either strength or elegance, and display many traces of excessive credulity. He died at an advanced age in March, 1791.

WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM.—This celebrated statesman was born in Wiltshire, A.D. 1708. He was at first designed for a military life, and obtained a cornetcy of horse; but after his introduction to the House of Commons, he resolved to make the senate the theatre of his abilities. His first speech, in 1736, was greatly admired, but his attack on the Convention with Spain, (See Pinnock's England, Chap. xxxv. sect. 2.) at once established his fame as the greatest orator of the age. His administration, when the public indignation compelled George II. to a change of ministry, was equally vigorous and fortunate. It was Mr. Pitt who discovered the abilities of General Wolfe, and sent him to retrieve the honour of England in America. He was created Earl of Chatham by George III. but lost his influence at court early in that reign. He vainly opposed the measures which ended in the separation between Great Britain and her American colonies, and was seized with the illness which proved fatal to him while addressing the House of Lords on the subject. He died A.D. 1778.

JOHN WILKES.—This once celebrated demagogue was born in Clerkenwell, A.D. 1727. He was educated at Leyden, and was rather a good classical scholar. He was elected to parliament A.D. 1757, and soon commenced the career of a political adventurer. His first friends were Sir Francis Dashwood and the Earl of Sandwich, men a little distinguished by their abilities and learning, but still more by their abandoned profligacy and vice. The scenes of infamy in which they were engaged were subsequently disclosed when the parties quarrelled, and were such as to fill every virtuous mind with disgust and indignation. In 1762, Mr. Wilkes commenced the publication of a periodical called the North Briton, with the scarcely disguised intention of exhibiting himself to the ministry as an adversary worthy of being purchased. The 45th Number of this paper contained a virulent and indecent attack upon

his Majesty's speech, and the privy council of the period issued a general warrant for the arrest of the authors, printers, and publishers of that paper. The consequence of this injudicious step will be found in Pinnock's *England*, Chap. xxxvi. sects. 3, 4, 5, & 6. But though Wilkes did not act from pure motives, the consequences of his boldness were advantageous to British freedom, General Warrants, a remnant of the Star Chamber of Charles I., were declared to be illegal by a solemn decision of the court of King's Bench, and a verdict of £1000 damages given against the secretary by whom the warrant had been signed. The popularity which Wilkes obtained by his opposition to the ministry was truly astonishing; but after a few years the hollowness of his pretensions to patriotism were discovered, and it was not without difficulty that he obtained the place of Chamberlain of London, A.D. 1779. In 1782 he obtained the expunging of all the resolutions respecting his Middlesex election from the journals of the House of Commons. He died A.D. 1797, having long outlived his popularity and influence.

WILLIAM COWPER.—This distinguished original poet was born A.D. 1731; he was educated at Westminster, and destined for the profession of the law, which, however, he could not be prevailed upon to study. In 1780 he published a volume of poems, which display great originality of thought and high moral feeling, but tinged with melancholy and a little misanthropy. His greatest work is the *Task*, a poem full of striking and valuable observations. He also translated Homer into blank verse. His mind at length sunk under the gloomy impressions which he had too long indulged, and his reason appears to have been affected during the later years of his life. He died April 28, 1800.

CHAPTER V.

THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

For just experience tells in every soil,
That those who think must govern those that toil;
And all that Freedom's highest aims can reach,
Is but to lay proportion'd loads on each.
Hence should one order disproportioned grow,
Its double weight must ruin all below.

GOLDSMITH.

IN the history of nations we may trace their elevation or decay to the nature of their governments. That spirit of manly freedom which is the life-blood of national vigour and enterprize, is only to be found where wholesome principles of legislation have been adopted, where licentiousness has been restrained, without liberty being impaired; and, on the other hand, when on the corruption of public opinion, despotism or democracy have reared an unholy edifice, the pillars have mouldered away, and precipitated into ruin the inmates of the building.

It may awaken a more minute attention to the histories of the several people detailed in the preceding pages of this volume, to mark in each the confirmation of this principle, and, finally, to observe how, in this favoured country, the constitution of the government has been the effect of an innate love of freedom, and the cause of its preservation.

The object of every government should be, the general good of the people. Every rank, then, being concerned, and equally so, in having their interests attended to, should have a control on the operations of the governing body, mutual control being the essence of permanence among the parts of a system. We shall proceed to consider how far this position has been kept in view in the formation of the British Constitution.

The governing body may be divided into two parts;

1st, The Legislative.

2d, The Executive.

To the first belongs the province of making laws; to the second, of expounding and enforcing them.

The legislative body is called the Parliament, and consists of three parts,—the King, Lords, and Commons.

The crown of England has been, and continues to be, hereditary. It is descendable, however, in a course peculiar to itself, subject to limitation by Parliament. On the abdication of James II., the throne being declared vacant, the houses of Lords and Commons called the Convention Parliament, appointed the next Protestant heirs of the blood royal of King Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, with a temporary exception to William the Third.

On the impending failure of the Protestant line of Charles I., the settlement was extended to the Protestant line of James I., viz. to the Princess Sophia of Hanover and the heirs of her body, being Protestants. That course of descent has not been interrupted.

In case of the king being a minor, or afflicted with any imbecility that might render him incompetent to exercise the royal prerogatives, a regent is appointed by Parliament, under such limitations as may be deemed expedient.

The duties of the king are embodied in the oath which is administered to him by the Archbishop of Canterbury at his coronation, and consists of these three parts:

1st, To govern his people according to law.

2d, To execute judgment in mercy.

3d, To maintain the established religion.

In his counsels the king is assisted by his parliament, his peers, and his privy council. His advisers are responsible for his public acts, and liable to impeachment; in which case, the king's interference can have no control over the judgment of their peers. From this transfer of

responsibility to the king's ministers, originates the maxim, "that the king can do no wrong."

The prerogatives of the king (by which is meant those privileges which belong to him by reason of his high station and dignity) are of two kinds :

1st, Direct.

2d, Incidental.

The direct prerogatives are those which flow essentially from his political person, the principal of which are the following :

The rejecting of bills proffered to him by the Lords and Commons.

Making treaties and alliances with foreign states.

Coining money.

Appointing judges and subordinate magistrates.

Pardoning offences.

Sending and receiving ambassadors.

Making war and peace.

He is also the fountain of executive power. He is the head of the army and navy, and has the control of all forts and garrisons within the realm. He has the power of establishing forts and havens. He may prohibit the importation of arms and ammunition, and confine his subjects within the realm, or recal them from abroad.

He is the fountain of justice, and may erect courts of judicature; and all criminal proceedings for offences are in his name. He cannot administer justice personally, since he has delegated that power to his judges.

He is the arbiter of foreign commerce; and hence he has the prerogative of establishing markets and fairs, with tolls, and of regulating weights and measures.

He is the head of the national Church; and hence arises the right to nominate to vacant bishopricks and other ecclesiastical preferments. He is the dernier resort in all spiritual matters, an appeal lying to him in Chancery from the sentence of every ecclesiastical judge.

ever, avail himself of the provisions of any statute, & he may not be specially named in it.

His incidental prerogatives bear a relation to so unconnected with his political person, and are various. The following are a few of them, and may afford an illustration of their nature :

No costs can be recovered against the king.

He cannot be a joint-tenant.

His debt shall be preferred before that of the subject.

No suit or action can be brought against him. If any person has a demand upon the king in point of property, he must petition him in Chancery.

The king's revenue is derived from the financial resources of the country. A portion of this national income is appropriated to the expences of the crown ; it includes salaries of the judges, officers of state, appointments of ambassadors, maintenance of the royal family, &c. &c. discharge of the king's private expences.

Another source of royal revenue arises from forfeitures, &c.

of the union with Ireland, four spiritual lords are sent from that kingdom.

These four consist of one of the four Irish archbishops and three of the bishops; they only sit for one session, and are nominated in rotation.

These spiritual lords are not considered as peers, but merely as lords of Parliament, and are supposed to hold certain ancient baronies under the king.

The lords temporal consist of the peers of the realm, the number of which may be increased at the will of the king. This prerogative is but sparingly exercised.

The following is an enumeration of the constituent members of the House of Lords, at the commencement of the session of 1829.

5 Royal Dukes.

19 Dukes with English titles.

23 Marquesses.

130 Earls.

26 Viscounts.

171 Barons.

3 Archbishops.

27 Bishops.

Amongst the temporal lords are several whose Irish or Scotch titles are higher than those by virtue of which they sit in the House of Peers.

Sixteen of the temporal peers only sit for one parliament. Sitting as representatives of the peerage of Scotland, according to the article of the Treaty of Union, which says that of the peers of Scotland, *at the time of the Union*, sixteen shall be named by the said peers of Scotland, to represent them in the House of Lords. Hence the crown cannot create a new Scotch peerage with the elective right.

Twenty-eight are chosen on the part of the Irish nobility, and are elected for life.

The rest of the temporal lords hold their seats by descent or creation.

in order to enable him to sustain his newly acquired annuity. This annuity is not exclusively confined to him; there are letters patent extant, one of which is a £10 a-year by Henry VI. out of the crown revenues to Sir Thomas Percy on creating him Earl of Egremont.

The summons for the assembling of the House of Commons used to contain these words: "*de arduis negotiis tractare et consilium impendere*," *i. e.* to discuss and give advice of importance to the nation, and afford their counsel.

The house is one of great dignity. The Lord Chancellor, who is appointed by the king, is the speaker of the House, and takes his seat on the woolsack. On the right, the spiritual peers sit, in full canonical robes; on the same side of the house those peers whose votes are supposed to coincide with those of the ministers sit; the opposition party sit on the left. While opposite the speaker, on the cross benches, those peers are seated who are not pledged to either party, and who express their opinion, on the merits of the measures brought forward, without regard to the persons with whom the measures originate.

royal address is then delivered from the throne at the extremity of the house, either by the King in person, or by commission. This address embraces a sketch of the domestic and foreign relations of the country, and alludes specially to the consideration of topics which are of urgent importance.

After the address has been received, or an amendment carried, an answer to the address is drawn up and submitted to the house.

The proper business of the session is then entered upon. The order of business being similar to that in the House of Commons, need not be described till the composition of the House of Commons be detailed.

A peer may vote by proxy; each peer can only hold the proxy of one absent peer. This house originates all bills that in any way affect the rights of the peerage, and the House of Commons have no power to make an alteration in them.

Each peer may enter his protest on the journals of the house, when any vote passes contrary to his sentiments, with the reasons for his dissent.

In sitting in judgment, his verdict is given "on his honour." His answers on bills in Chancery are given in the same manner, but in criminal or civil cases he must be sworn.

THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

THE members of the House of Commons amount in number to 658. Of these 513 represent the people of England, 100 represent Ireland, and 45 Scotland. Each member is elected by a majority of the qualified electors of the place he represents; and this house may therefore be considered in theory as a miniature of the people.

The borough system, by means of which the ministers and some of the nobility have the power of returning members

The qualifications of a member of the House of Commons are the following :

He must be of full age, and not an alien born. In a county, he must possess real property of the value of £20 a-year : and for a city or a borough to the amount of £10 a-year. The only exception to this is in the case of sons of peers, and the members for the universities.

There are many persons excepted from the privilege of being members of the House of Commons, such as Aliens born.

Judges—Clergymen.

Persons attainted of treason or felony.

Sheriffs of counties.

Mayors *.

Bailiffs of boroughs.

} *in their respective jurisdictions*

Persons concerned in the management of any duties or taxes created since 1697 (except commissioners of the treasury).

Officers of the excise, customs, or stamps.

Persons holding any new office under the crown since 1705.

Pensioners under the crown for a limited duration.

Any person accepting an office of profit under the crown, which existed prior to 1716, vacates his seat; members desirous of resigning, usually are permitted by the crown to obtain the appointment of the Stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds. Having now stated who may be, or rather who may not be, members of this house, it is necessary to detail the qualification of electors, and the mode of conducting the election.

All persons of full age, and possessing freeholds to the amount of 40s. a-year are entitled to vote for county members. In Ireland, the freehold must be £10 yearly value, and must be registered pursuant to the act of parliament, within eight years previous to the election.

Where a person claims a right of voting on account of any annuity or rent-charge, which comes to him by descent, marriage, devise, presentation to a benefice, or promotion to an office, he must enter a certificate upon oath with the clerk of the peace twelve calendar months preceding; if the annuity or rent-charge comes to him by any other means, he must register it in the same manner.

Persons employed in the collection and management of the revenue are excluded from voting.

Freemen of cities and boroughs must have been admitted to their freedom twelve calendar months before the election, to entitle them to vote.

Inhabitants must have resided six months within the borough or district.

No woman, peer, alien, or outlaw, attainted or convict felon, or person convicted of bribery can vote.

The writ for summoning the House of Commons issues from chancery, to the sheriff of each county. Three days after the receipt of the writ, the sheriff sends his *præcipe* to the returning officer to proceed with the election within eight days after the receipt of the precept, giving four days' notice.

For a county, within two days after the receipt of the

writ, the sheriff must proclaim at the usual place of election a special county court, to be holden for the purpose of the election only, and must proceed to the election not sooner than ten, nor later than sixteen days after the receipt of the writ.

Peers are forbidden to interfere in the election of commoners; and one day at least before the election all soldiers are to remove to the distance of two miles or more, and not to return till one day after the poll is ended, except the military in garrisons. When the election is closed, the returning officer returns his precept to the sheriff, with the names of the persons elected by the majority; and the sheriff returns the whole, together with the county writ, and the names of the knights of the shire elected, to the clerk of the crown, in Chancery, before the day of meeting, if for a new parliament; or within fourteen days after election if there be an occasional vacancy, in which latter case the vacancy is filled by warrant of the house through the speaker.

In case of a disputed return by the sheriff, the case is referred to a committee of the house, appointed by ballot according to the Grenville Act, 10 Geo. III. c. 16.

The speaker of the house is elected by the members, the king having a veto on the appointment. He cannot deliver his opinion on any subject unless in a committee of the whole house. The Chancellor, who is the speaker of the House of Lords, may deliver his opinion like any other of their lordships.

In both houses a numerical majority binds the whole, and is ascertained and given publicly.

In both houses the form of passing a bill is similar. If the bill be of a private nature, a petition is preferred, setting forth the grievance to be remedied. If this be founded on disputable facts it is referred to a committee. In public matters the bill is brought in upon motion made to the house without petition.

Persons directed to bring in the bill present it drawn out on paper with blanks. If a private bill commence in the Lords, it is referred to two of the judges.

It is now read a first time. After a short interval it is read a second time. The speaker unfolds to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question whether it shall proceed further. If opposed in any of its stages, and the opposition be successful, the bill must be dropped for that session.

After the second reading it is committed. In an unimportant matter a committee is appointed by the house; if the matter be of importance there is a committee of the whole house.

It is then debated clause by clause, amendments made, blanks filled up, and sometimes it is entirely new modelled.

After it has passed the committee the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee have introduced, and it is all reconsidered.

It is then ordered to be engrossed; after which it is read a third time; any future amendments are added in a piece of parchment tacked to the bill, which is called a rider.

Then the speaker puts the question, whether this bill shall pass? If so, then a title is put to it, and a member is directed to carry it to the bar of the house of peers, and deliver it.

There it passes through similar forms; if agreed to, two masters in Chancery, or in matters of importance two judges bring down the assent. If amendments are made they are sent down with the bill to receive the concurrence of the Commons. If the Commons disapprove of the amendments there is usually a conference between members deputed by both houses. If they disagree the whole is dropped.

If agreed to by both houses, the bill is then deposited in the House of Peers, to await the royal assent. In case

of a bill of supply, it is sent back to the Commons, after receiving the concurrence of the Lords. Such a bill, which authorises the raising of money from the people to meet the exigencies of the state, must originate in the House of Commons, and the House of Lords is not at liberty to make any alteration or amendment in it.

This power, which is vested in the Commons, of granting or withholding supplies, is the most efficacious control on the executive that could well be devised.

The royal assent is given either in person or by commission—usually by commission. After the royal assent is given, the bill becomes a statute, or Act of Parliament. The form of assent is, “*Le Roy le veut ;*” the king wills it.

To a private bill, “*Soit fait comme il est désirè ;*” be it done as it is desired.

A refusal by the king, “*Le roy s’avisera ;*” the king will consider it.

A bill of supply is presented by the speaker of the House of Commons, to whom the reply is made.

“*Le roy remercie ses loyal sujets, accepte leur benevolence et aussi le veut ;*” the king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevolence, and thus wills it.

It is essential to constitute a session of parliament that some act should have been passed.

The Mutiny Act is only in force for a year, so that the Parliament are obliged to meet at least annually. The regular duration of a parliament is for seven years; it may, however, be dissolved at the royal pleasure, or on the demise of the crown.

It may also be adjourned or prorogued. The king has no authority to adjourn the parliament, he can only signify his desire. An adjournment differs from a prorogation in this respect—that a prorogation concludes the session, and hence on meeting again after prorogation all bills, &c. which were not completed at the time of prorogation must be recommenced. In the case of an adjourn-

ment the session is not concluded, and therefore the business is resumed, as if there had been no interruption. The king can prorogue the parliament either by command in person, by an order under the great seal, or by commission.

Formerly parliament used to assemble twice a day, at eight o'clock in the morning, and at two in the afternoon. No member could then be absent without leave from the king. A strange instance occurs on the records of parliament of the velocity of parliamentary decision. The bill empowering the king, as supreme head of the Church, to constitute his bishops by his own authority, was brought into the House of Lords, read three times, passed—sent to the Commons, read three times there, passed, and returned to the Lords, all in the same day.

By a fiction of law the whole session of parliament is considered as one day. All acts, in which a specific day is not provided, are directed to take their commencement from the day on which they receive the royal assent.

METHOD OF CITING THE STATUTES

Is by naming the year of the king's reign in which the statute was made, together with the chapter, or particular act, according to its numerical order. Ex. gr. 9. Geo. IV. chap. 4.

The acts of one session make but one statute. If there are two sessions in one year, the acts of the first are designated as statute 1, those of the second as statute 2.

In case of the king or queen dying, when no parliament is in existence, the last parliament revives and sits for six months.

Having now considered the component parts of the legislature, with the mode of transacting business, it may not be inappropriate, before proceeding to the description of the executive, to mention the nature of parliamentary

privileges. These are of various kinds. The most important are—

Privileges of speech.

Freedom from arrest in civil matters.

The publication of seditious libels would subject a member to arrest. With regard to the privilege of speech, the members of the two houses are not answerable at law for any personal reflections on individuals contained in speeches delivered in their respective houses. But the publication of such a speech is not protected. Lord Kenyon, who was Chief Justice of the King's Bench, said, in the case of the king against Lord Abingdon, that if the words in question had been spoken in the House of Lords, and confined to its walls, the Court of King's Bench would have had no jurisdiction to call a member of that house before them to answer for such words as an offence; but that the offence was the publication of them in the papers, under the authority of the member, with his sanction and at his expence.

The privilege of speech is formally demanded by the speaker of the House of Commons at the commencement of the session.

A peer's person is always free from arrest, except in case of felony. The privilege only extends to the members of the House of Parliament during the session, and forty days before and forty after. This is the number of days usually mentioned, but it is not always strictly adhered to.

No member of either house shall be detained till the matter of which he stands suspected be first communicated to the house of which he is a member, and its consent obtained for his commitment.

For any imputations against either house, each has the privilege of committing the delinquent. The House of Commons is particularly jealous of its privileges, and visits with much severity any offender.

Such then is the legislative part of the British Constitution, wherein we perceive the one part controlling the undue exercise or influence of the other. The originating of supplies exclusively in the Commons, shearing off the locks that contain the strength of executive tyranny, and rendering the people's voice the nation's strength.

The rights of the Nobility are well protected by the House of Peers, and the licentiousness of republicanism, or the oppression of Aristocracy, checked by the royal prerogatives. The parts unite well and firmly, and rest on a broad and substantial basis; and to use the sentiment of Montesquieu, it is only when the legislative becomes more corrupt than the executive that the British Constitution must totter and decay.

We now proceed to an examination of the executive. The King is the fountain of the executive authority; the meaning of the phrase, that the King can do no wrong, has been explained already.

The executive is divided into two branches,

The civil executive,

The criminal executive.

The first is entrusted to the judges, who preside in the courts of law and equity.

The principal of these are :

The Lord Chancellor,

The Vice-Chancellor,

The Master of the Rolls,

The four Judges of the Court of King's Bench,

The four Barons of the Exchequer,

The four Judges of the Court of Common Pleas.

Besides these there are several courts of inferior jurisdiction, from which complaints can be removed to the upper courts at Westminster.

The station of a judge is one of great dignity. They hold their office "*quam diu se bene gesserint*," (while they conduct themselves well,) and are only to be removed upon

an address to the King, from both Houses of Parliament. They may be called on by the House of Lords to deliver their opinion on any legal right, and are ranked among the Counsellors of the King.

With regard to the jurisdiction of the courts of common law, it may be proper to premise, that the laws by which the rights of persons and of property in England are regulated, are of four kinds :

The Common Law,
Local Customs,
Rules and Usage of the Courts of Equity,
And Acts of Parliament.

The common law, as far as it regards real property, is founded on the feudal system, the principles of which have been unfolded in a former chapter, and has been compiled chiefly by the care and learning of the judges of the courts of Common Pleas and King's Bench.

Local customs are rather exceptions to the common law, and arise from the usage of particular parts of the kingdom.

The rules of the Courts of Equity have been collected from the dicta of Lord Chancellors, more especially within the last two centuries.

The statute law, whose authority is paramount, is the law contained in the acts of Parliament, subject to the interpretation of the courts of law and equity.

The civil law is administered by the

Admiralty	} Courts,
Ecclesiastical	
University	

which are subjected to the control of the courts of common law.

By a fiction of law the judges are supposed to be acquainted with the entire statute law in force.

The King's Bench originally had jurisdiction in criminal matters, which were committed against the King's peace.

The Common Pleas decided all disputes between subject and subject, and the Exchequer had the charge of the revenue. By means of legal fictions their jurisdictions have been altered, and at present are as follow :

The King's Bench has, in addition to its original jurisdiction, that in all personal actions.

The Exchequer has received the same addition. Both these courts are excluded from a jurisdiction over actions real and mixed.

Real action is for the specific recovery of lands, tenements, or hereditaments.

Personal action is an action for the specific recovery of goods and chattels, or for damages, or breach of contract, &c.

Mixed action is an action for recovering lands, &c., and damages sought for the detention.

An appeal lies from the decision of the Court of Common Pleas to the King's Bench. From the other courts to the Exchequer Chamber, where the Lord Chancellor presides, with the judges of the different courts, except that from which the appeal comes.

From the Exchequer Chamber the appeal is to the House of Lords.

In a particular form of action, there is a direct appeal to the House of Lords.

Where the peculiar circumstances of a case warrant a departure from a strict adherence to legal principles, Equity interferes. The suits in equity principally relate to real property.

The Chancellor has the jurisdiction of infants, idiots, lunatics, &c., and can exercise a great controul even over the private relations of life.

An appeal lies to the peers from his decision.

Courts of criminal justice are numerous.

The judges, twice every year, go the circuit of the kingdom. For this purpose the whole is divided into six dis-

tricts, two judges for each district; one to decide civil, the other criminal causes.

The former are called *Nisi Prius* causes, because they are to be determined at Westminster "*nisi prius*," i. e. unless beforehand the judge comes into the county. There are several ways of appealing from the decision at *nisi prius*, but which would occupy too much detail.

From the decision of the jury in criminal cases there is no appeal. The king alone can pardon.

A man cannot, however, be indicted a second time for the same offence.

There are a great variety of petty courts of minor criminal jurisdiction, in cases of misdemeanours.

Every opportunity is afforded a prisoner of obtaining the most strict and impartial justice.

The Privy Council forms an important part of the executive. They are a court of appeal in colonial cases.

Proclamations issue under their approbation, and matters of domestic counsel are submitted to their advice.

The distinction between the cabinet and privy council was established after the Revolution. The responsibility of the former being much greater than that of the latter. Several impeachments have been preferred against ministers, as, for instance, Danby, Strafford, &c. The king's command, or the king's pardon, is not a valid plea to bar the impeachment.

In this very general and condensed sketch it was not considered judicious to go into any thing of minute detail. The nature of trial by jury, the particular mode of proceeding in each court, the outlines of pleading, and the philosophy of evidence: these and the proceedings in criminal prosecutions may afford matter for a larger space, in another volume of modern historical dissertations.

This volume has been given for the purpose of affording to the youthful reader, in addition to the philosophy of his-

tory and of classic literature, the great outline of the British Government, the parts of which he will fill up with advantage only, if he prepares his mind by storing it with bold and leading principles. Enough if in these pages he has found a stimulant to further seeking and searching after knowledge. If by the selections here exhibited to instruct his mind and cultivate his taste, he has felt a hunger and a thirst for further inquiry. If a classic fire has been lighted up within him, and he pants to behold the sublime pages of the Grecian muse. If here has been afforded so much of the principles on which the British Government is founded, as may beckon to him that reads, and invite him to walk from the porch into the temple of English Legislation; he may perhaps find much to condemn, but he will find still more to claim his veneration, and extort his praise. And as he approaches the altar of the temple, where burns the vestal fire of liberty, he will feel glowing within him that ennobling enthusiasm which a free constitution kindles in the bosom of its free-born subjects. He will know in what consists the boast of British nativity, the chartered freedom of the British people. And finally he may be led to consider the British law, not as the instrument of vexatious litigation, but as the sacred transcript of eternal truths, which bind together commonwealths and nations.

CHAPTER VI.

GREAT OFFICERS OF STATE.

IT has been usually asserted that a cabinet council was first formed in England during the reign of Charles I., and this has been attributed to that monarch's love of arbitrary power; but we find that, by the charter of Henry III., four conservators were appointed to manage the monies levied by parliament; and by an Act passed in the minority of Henry VI. six great officers of state were nominated for the same purpose, which seems like the parliamentary es-

tablishment of a cabinet. The cabinet consists of the great officers of state, who are appointed by the king to administer the affairs of the government; but some of those offices, which at one time possessed great authority, are now merely nominal, and serve only to swell the pageant of a coronation.

The *Vicegerent of the Realm*, was a minister appointed by Henry VIII. to administer the affairs of the church. Thomas Lord Cromwell was the first and last who held the office, its duties being subsequently divided between the archbishops of York and Canterbury.

The *Lord High Steward*, this was anciently the most important officer in the state; his duty was to act as deputy to the king in every department of the government. Henry of Bolingbroke, afterwards Henry IV., was the last who held it as a permanent office; on his accession to the crown he abolished it, as giving too much power to a subject. A Lord High Steward is now only appointed to preside at the ceremonial of a coronation, or at the trial of a peer.

The *Lord Chancellor*, or *Lord Keeper*; both these offices were instituted in the reign of King John, but were united by Elizabeth. This office was always held by clergymen previous to the Reformation. He is always a member of the cabinet.

The *Lord High Treasurer*; the first appointment to this office is dated so far back as the reign of William Rufus, and has been usually held by the leading member of the administration. To him belongs the management and control of the public expenditure. This duty has of late years been performed by a Board called the Lords of the Treasury, and the first Lord holds the same rank that formerly belonged to the Lord High Treasurer.

The *Lord President of the Council* is always a member of the cabinet; the office was instituted by John, and soon after united to the chancellorship, from which it was separated by Charles II. and still continues distinct.

The *Lord Privy Seal*, was appointed by Edward III. to

preside in the Court of Requests, where all petitions were inspected before being presented to either house of parliament. Since the abolition of that court, his duty is principally confined to putting the seal to charters, grants, pardons, and other matters connected with the personal prerogatives of the king.

The *Chancellor of the Exchequer* has the charge of collecting the revenue of the crown and providing means to support the expenses of government.

The *three Secretaries of State* conduct the correspondence of the government in the home, foreign and colonial departments; like the two last, they are always members of the cabinet.

The *Lord High Admiral*; this is an office of great antiquity and importance, and in modern times has been usually put in commission. It was held, however, by Prince George of Denmark, the husband of Queen Anne, and more recently by his royal highness the Duke of Clarence. The First Lord of the Admiralty is usually a member of the cabinet.

The *Master of the Mint*, has the charge of providing coin for circulation in the kingdom.

The *President of the Board of Control*, which directs the affairs of India, and the *President of the Board of Trade* are sometimes cabinet ministers.

The *Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster* was an officer appointed when Edward III. gave that duchy to his son John of Gaunt. Henry IV. continued to maintain a separate jurisdiction in Lancashire, and since that period its chancellor has been a ministerial officer, though not always in the cabinet.

The offices of *Lord Great Chamberlain* and *Earl Marshal*, which are hereditary in the noble families of Bertie and Howard, are now little more than nominal, though they were at one time among the most important in the kingdom. The great office of Lord High Constable has been abolished ever since the reign of Henry VIII.

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